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ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF DEVELOPMENT STUDIES
CENTER FOR REGIONAL AND LOCAL DEVELOPMENT STUDIES
POSTGRADUATE PROGRAM IN REGIONAL AND LOCAL
DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

THE CONTRIBUTION OF DIASPORA COMMUNITY AND SKILLED YOUTH
EXTERNAL MIGRATION FROM ETHIOPIAN URBAN CENTER: THE CASE
OF BOLE SUB CITY FROM ADDIS ABABA

BY

SARA ADEFRIS

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ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY

DECLARATION

This is to certify that this thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university, and all sources of material used for the thesis have been properly indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

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Acronyms and Abbreviations

UN - United Nations

WB - World Bank

IOM - International Organization for Migration

SSA - Sub-Saharan Africa

KII - Key Informant Interview

HDI - Human Development Index

GDP - Gross Domestic Products

ILO - International Labor Organization

FSF - Financial Standard Forum

NGO - Non- Governmental Organizations

WMR - World Migration Report

FDG - Focus Group Discussion

GFMD - Global Forum on Migration and Development

UNDP - United Nations Development Program

RMMS - Regional Mixed Migration Secretariat

DVLP - Diversified Visa Lottery Program

NELM - New Economics of Labor Migration

USAID - United States Agency for International Development

AHEAD - The Association for Higher Education and Development

UNDESA - United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs

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Abstract

Migration is one of the important research agendas in regional development as it encompasses both place and people dimension and its dynamic nature triggers research questions. Considering the above note, the aim of this study is to identify the contribution of diaspora community on external migration from Ethiopian urban centers: The case of out migration from Addis Ababa City. Research emphasizing on aspects of migration in Addis Ababa city has focused on economic, political and unemployment issues; particularly the problem of job for skilled and youth are recursively pointed out as the major reasons behind out migration. The study used cross-sectional research method with the objective of revealing the causes of out-migration decision by respondents. The study interviewed the cases of sixteen individuals besides using secondary data from books, journals, websites and reports.

The findings of the study indicate that intersection of multiple stressors: poverty, political instability, and unemployment, pressure of friends and family, feelings of inferiority and desire of independence made youth vulnerable for external migration. The finding unearths the role of diaspora community for the development of Ethiopia. Diasporas wants to contribute for the development of Ethiopia but due to the lack of government reliability and political unrest in the country Diasporas don't even know who to trust when it comes to changing the country from developing to developed countries. At the end, the study recommends that government should focus and intervein in the design of the policy for the young skilled educated to prevent them from migration and for the diaspora community to invest freely in the country for development.

Keywords: *external migration: diaspora: skilled youth: development: policy*

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 Background of the Study

Migration is a form of mobility in which people change their residential locations across defined administrative boundaries. It is a natural human behavior, inherently associated with origin of humanity (Djelti Samir. 2017). Migration is the most complex component of population change. A migrant's decision on whether how and where to migrate involves a range of actors in different ways. No restriction is placed upon the distance of the move or upon the voluntary or involuntary nature of the act (Lee. 1966). Population shift have been present since the dawn of human history. Despite the ancient forms of migration, European mercantilism initiated the hitherto largest process of forced migration the shipment of ten million slaves from western Africa to the new world (Robin Cohen. 1996). This has become the beginning of external migration in Africa.

Africa is no stranger to mass migrations. For more than one hundred millennia, following the initial evolution, which may have been in the coastal area near the present-day borders of Namibia and Angola, Homo sapiens moved northwards then migrated out of Africa for the first time some 70,000 years ago. (Tishkoff et al., 2009). Recent DNA evidence points to some potential interbreeding with Homo Neanderthalensis, a prior inhabitant of Europe, before migrating onwards ultimately to populate all but the Antarctic region. (Green et al., 2010). Starting about 2,000 years ago, although the precise pattern of mobility remains disputed, the spread of the Bantu-speaking peoples, originating from today's Cameroon and Eastern Nigeria, led to one of the largest migrations seen in recent millennia, displacing or integrating with the indigenous inhabitants of East and eventually South Africa. (Oliver, 1966).

Upon independence, many African nations embarked on nation building, leading to establishment of institutions that sufficiently nurtured many of today's African leaders and highly qualified professionals and experts (D. Ratha, S. Mohapatra, C. Özden, A. Shimeles 2011). However, these institutions have since been weakened due to the poor political and economic governance of the late 1970's and difficult economic reforms of the 1980's to 1990's, which drove away the emerging and capable human resources (John. K. Akokpari 2010). Large conflicts that characterized many countries in the region further weakened these institutions and drove out even more skilled professionals and chased away foreign investors and industries. Overall, the brain

drains from Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) consisted of nearly one million people with tertiary education (Annex 2) in 2000, the most recent datasets analyzed extensively. The skills flight from African countries, especially fragile and conflict-affected states can be attributed to a combination of push factors, such as poor political and economic governance, active conflict, as well as pursuing higher education abroad (IOM 2014). A number of pull factors demonstrated are demand for skilled workers abroad such as that for medical professionals in the UK and in other Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) nations. As a result, African professionals have taken advantage of the global mobility of labor to practice in more stable African economies or seek opportunities outside the continent.

In Ethiopia international migration history began with large scale cross boarder migration goes back to the early 1970s. However, some authors Zewde et al. (2010) argue that Migration and settlement elsewhere (e.g. Rome and Jerusalem) was significant as far back as the 14th century. This migration arose from the quest for religious redemption or in pursuit of knowledge (Zewde et al. 2010). During Emperor Haile Selassie regime, it was mainly characterized by the departure of people to the US and Europe to obtain western education (Getahun. 2007). Interestingly, the rate of return of western educated elites was reportedly high not because the country of origin was better in economic terms but because they occupied important government position on return (Terrazas. 2007).

During the Military Regime Ethiopia experienced the worst famine, the worst human rights abuses, the worst political turmoil, and the worst economic condition in its recorded history Ezra (2001). In the early years of the Derg regime the country was ravaged by war that arose from various internal rebellions and boarder disputes. The 1974 revolution didn't achieve any meaningful change for the people of Ethiopia: rather it led to further political turmoil and instability (Keller 1988). In response, the Derg regime, has applied excessive military force and allowed killings and mass arrests of opposition in the so called "qey shiber" (Red Terror) campaign. This had led to a massive population displacement and external migration in Ethiopia (Girmachew Zewdu 2014).

In 1991 the Ethiopian People's Revolutionary Democratic Party (EPRDP), a coalition consisting of different ethnic groups, overthrew the Derg regime. A transitional government was established, and in 1993 Eritrea separated from Ethiopia. In 1994 Ethiopia's Constitution was established, and in 1995 the country had its first elections. From 1998-2000 Ethiopia and Eritrea were at war until

the signing of a peace treaty in 2000, but tensions still remain high along the border between Ethiopia and Eritrea. The constitution established Ethiopia as an ethnic federalist state with nine regional states based on the predominant ethnic groups, with the exception of two federal territories, Addis Ababa and Dire Dawa (Habtu, 2003). Prime Minister, Meles Zenawi, has been in power since 1995, leading the state with a heavy hand. The last elections in 2005 were cited with irregularities and fraud, and there is concern about the legitimacy of the May 2010 elections. Political freedoms are repressed in Ethiopia with state control of the media, limited academic freedom, and intolerance for opposition toward the government. International human rights groups, such as Human Rights Watch, have reported politically motivated killings (HRW, 2009). This political situation drove people out of the country for their safety.

Since then Ethiopia began and continues to lose its highly skilled professionals in large numbers since the mid-1970s. However, today, the exodus continues, further depleting the meager human capital available in the country. Based on anecdotal information, it is estimated that the country has lost over 30-35% of its skilled and educated professionals over the last four decades. For instance, David Shinn (Shinn 2008) reports that between 1968 and 2006, Ethiopia trained 3,728 doctors (excluding those who were trained externally). Of these, about 3,000 left the country, and in 2006, only less than 700 doctors were left to serve in the country. There were more Ethiopian doctors in the East Coast of the US than in Ethiopia and even more Ethiopian doctors in Chicago than in Ethiopia (Shinn, 2008). Regarding the characteristics of Ethiopians abroad, it is estimated that out of the more than 450,000 Ethiopians in the United States, over 30 percent have first degrees and above. Also, in 2007, 150 professionals left Ethiopian Airlines for jobs in the Middle East. Similarly, it is estimated that around 4000 Ethiopians and Germans with Ethiopian background, about 20 percent hold a degree at the bachelor's level or above (Schlenzka 2009). Under this circumstance the outflow of educated and skilled individuals from developing to developed countries has remained a complex development challenge and is increasingly becoming a critical issue in the knowledge-based globalized world.

The Diversity Visa (DV) program—or the “green card lottery”—was conceived in 1990 and began in 1995 as an answer to public demand and lobbying efforts to increase legal immigration from Ireland specifically, without giving the Irish special treatment (DVLP report 2017). The program was also an answer to the call of the Select Commission on Immigration and Refugee Policy,

which had in 1981 declared that the U.S. immigration system should clearly serve three goals, one of which was “cultural diversity.” The DV program addressed both concerns by establishing one immigration pathway that has selected migrants explicitly to increase the diversity of migrants with respect to their birth countries. Every year, it offers 50,000 immigrant visas, to eligible applicants born in countries that send few immigrants to the United States (Jeremy L. Neufeld 2018). Those born in countries that send more than 50,000 immigrants in the prior five years are excluded. Visas are awarded by lottery within six regional allotments that further diversify the global distribution of DV immigration. The DV is one of the only ways that people from many low-sending countries have any opportunity to immigrate to the United States.

The exact number of Ethiopian professionals in the Diaspora and their respective areas of discipline are currently not known. There is no census, documentation or database that is centrally available. Paucity of information on migration of professionals or their return is a serious setback exactly to quantify the enormity of the problem of brain drain or gain in Ethiopia. Destination countries probably have more complete information but are not always presented in a way that reflects the impact on the source countries. There is general agreement on the trend in migration. The exodus is unabated, and it is still on the rise! In some areas, even a loss of a few individuals may be a significant percentage of the total manpower in that particular profession.

These professionals in the Ethiopian Diaspora can be classified into two main groups. The first group is made of individuals who completed their education in Ethiopia and then emigrated, mainly consisting of scientists, engineers, health professionals, investors and entrepreneurs, etc. The second group involves those who studied abroad, found jobs, established families and became permanent residents or citizens of the host country. Additionally, there is also a third group that is emerging. These are second and third generation Ethiopians in the Diaspora, an energetic group that is a product of both cultures, often conferring them with special advantages from having derived the synergy of the two cultures. This dynamic group is open to change and also has the propensity of being innovative and productive. In mentoring and motivation, this group has a tremendous potential to contribute the development in Ethiopia. Meaningfully engaging these young professionals to partner and team up with their counterparts as well as with senior professionals for mentorship and knowledge and investment transfer at home can help Ethiopia to leapfrog into higher transformation and development. (Bishaw, 2010).

1.2. Statement of the problem

People moving across the country has become a major factor of social transformation in all regions of the world. When it comes to international migration youth are the most travelling social group. They make up a substantial share of the global international migrants and the largest share of migrants every year. In 2010, there were 27 million international young immigrants (Briefing Note of International Youth Day, 2013; Byerlee, 2008). Youth are an integral component of the migrant population, both in terms of volume, and the effects they have on both their points of origin and destination. Young people view migration as an avenue to improve their status, learn new skills, and transit into adulthood. Consequently, migration continues to serve as the means to improve their livelihoods.

Ethiopia's youth has the potential to play a significant role in the country's socio-economic and political development. The issue of youth has received greater attention in Ethiopia and the government has started to implement policies to support young people. The National Youth Policy (2004) recognizes the importance of youth to participate, in an organized manner, in the process of building a democratic system, good governance and development endeavors, and benefit fairly from the outcome. However, there is a lack of barriers that hinder youth's active participation. Including socio-economic, political cultural life, persistent youth, poverty, and lack of recreational activities. Government of Ethiopia gave poor and limited attention of skilled youth policies and there is little evidence that young Ethiopians are involved in the decision-making process and the livelihoods of their polices.

The permanent departure of a countries most educated, best trained population and of its young working age people is traditionally characterized as a critical loss. However, the out flow of human capital need not to be entirely negative provided the skills, finances, and know-how of diasporas. It can be used for development of the home country through the transfer of knowledge and capital for investments and programs (Potres. a. 2006). The inclusion of its large and relatively well of diaspora in Ethiopia's development was an obvious strategy for a country that needed to marshal external resources to build its economy.

In association with this, most countries in the world have recognized the important role that their respective Diasporas could play in economic growth and development. The Ethiopian government has officially acknowledged the important roles of the Diaspora to the country's development over

the past decades. However, the progress observed in engaging the Diaspora in the development process seems to be not good enough. Ethiopia government is making coordinated effort to attract their Diasporas. However, there could be multi-faceted problems affecting their return back home. Mostly, lack of conducive political and economic environment such as execution capacity, inefficient government bureaucracies, weak institutions, and choking corruption. These are probable constraints, which deter the Diaspora from participating in their country's development effort. Even though the government of Ethiopia developed policy regarding investment, housing and citizenship, most of the Diaspora's political orientation and inclination appears not to go along with these weak policies and laws. Thus, their contribution to the country's economic development is unsatisfactory.

This research is not the first inquire about out migration from Addis Ababa as different scholars have conducted an inquire on out migration in Ethiopia. For instance, Scholarly findings on the causes and consequences of external migration state unemployment, poverty, stereotypic attitude of potential migrants towards migration and political instability in the place of origin as key push-pull factors (Department of international development report, 2007; Jamieson & Groves, 2008; Waddington & Sabates-Wheeler, 2003). Studies conducted on the causes of external migration in Ethiopia state limited employment opportunities, poverty, overpopulation, and food scarcity (See for e.g. Fransen & Kuschminder, 2009; Asefach, 2012). More specifically, study conducted by Girmachew Zewdu, 2014) states that out-migration has impact on remittances sent home by migrants to family.

However, the studies conducted on participation of Ethiopian skilled youth police and the result of the contribution of the diaspora community on socioeconomic development of Ethiopia are very scarce and don't provide clear pictures due to the poor policy of the country. Most youth have limited awareness of youth policies and there is little evidence that skilled young Ethiopians are involved in the decision-making process and the livelihoods of their communities. The government of Ethiopian policy gave little attention for skilled youth to participate for the development of the country which initiates them for migration. The study also identifies the lack of Ethiopian Diaspora contributions in the country's development due to critical bottle neck poor and bureaucratic policy of the country hindering them from participating in the development process.

1.3. Objectives of the study

1.3.1 General Objective

The main objective of this study is to investigate the influence of skilled youth migration decisions with due emphases on the roles played by diaspora community. It also assesses the policy for both skilled youth of Addis Ababa from participating in decision making and the diaspora community which hinders them from contributing and creating environment for them to play a constructive role.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

The specific objectives of this research include:

- ✓ Investigate the root cause and issues which triggers external migration from Ethiopian urban centers
- ✓ To explore the potential contributions of Ethiopian diaspora in the promotion of the country' development.
- ✓ Assess the Ethiopian skilled youth participation policy, including Ethiopian governments policies for diaspora contribution

1.4. Research questions

This research is conducted to address the following basic questions:

1. What are the factors that determines the root cause of skilled youth migration?
2. What roles do diaspora play to influence on migrant's migration decision?
3. What does Ethiopian government policies states when it comes to supporting skilled youth?
4. What is the potential contribution of Ethiopian diaspora in the country's development?
5. How does Ethiopian diaspora policy affect Diasporas from contributing to the country?

1.5. Significance of the study

Skilled youth are valuable resources and represent the future of a given country (Monu, 1976). Though skilled youth are assets of a country, these days they are facing problems like poverty, unemployment and political instability. They are also more likely to migrate than any other age groups with no clear explanation of the reason behind (IOM, 2011). A number of researchers have dealt with the area of international migration in western countries. However, the prior scholar did

not consider skilled youth migration and the contribution of the diaspora community for the development of the country. The researcher focuses on migration of skilled youth from Ethiopian urban centers including participation of the Diaspora in the development process. This enables the country to reduce poverty or promotes the development efforts the country has already started. This study attempts to assess the potential contributions of Ethiopian Diaspora in the development of the country and the challenges they encounter as there is limited research conducted on the issue previously.

Therefore, this study opens an opportunity to understand the existence of clear information gaps of skilled youth migration from Addis Ababa and the contribution of diaspora community. Accordingly, studying the disadvantages and opportunities that may be obtained as a result of urban migration is accelerating and at the same time supporting the economic development of Addis Ababa. It is believed that the research finding is expected to add knowledge balance on our attitudes.

1.6. Scope of the study

The main purpose of this research is to investigate the contribution of diaspora community and skilled youth external migration from Ethiopian urban centers. Based on this, the study focuses on investigating the root cause factors, the effect factors of external migration and its nexus to development of Addis Ababa. From the geographical context, given that the large number of the town population, the number of survey respondents involved could not be representative of the whole town, so the research is carried out on bole sub-city, which is frequently vulnerable to skilled youth external migration. Moreover, methodologically this study is a cross-sectional research design, besides to this the study followed a qualitative research approach that incorporates method of data collection and analysis. Specifically, the relevant data was gathered from migrants and non-migrants through in-depth interviews.

1.7. Limitation of the study

The aim of the study is to investigate skilled youth external migration and the contribution of diaspora in the case of Addis Ababa. This study has been limited due to the following reasons. While the researcher was doing this research, I was planning on making my study area in bole sub city in Addis Ababa. According to the research, the study plan was to use mixed research approach. But during the process of this research big catastrophe happened in our country. Due to corona

virus (Covid-19) pandemic outbreak in our country it is very difficult to gather data or information for the fulfilment of my research. In association with this situation, I have changed my research approach into qualitative research method. Since this virus is spreading very rapidly and very contagious people are under stress and they were unable to provide me information for my research.

Furthermore, there is a strict restriction with the government and the household including government offices to work in shifts and stating that people should maintain their social distance. So, the only option which I have is to interview few of bole sub city people by telephone and face to face interview maintaining our social distance. The researcher included using secondary data like previous references such as books, internet web sites, publications and articles for the completion of the research.

1.8. Ethical consideration

In this study the researcher needs to consider moral–ethical issues before and while designing a study and collecting data. Kreuger and Neuman (2006) state that researchers should follow proper ethical guideline even when the study participants are negligent or unaware of it. Any research that includes people requires consideration of ethical issues and human subject or participants protection from harm is imperative in the process (Orab, Eisenhauer & Wynaden, 2001). Accordingly, the researcher gave weight for the ethics of research and did the best to assure the safety of study participants in the process. The study participants are well informed about the study and required their consent to participate in the study in all stage of data collection process.

The decision to participate in this research depends upon the participants willingness to share his/her experience. Those who were not willing to participate are not obliged to take part in the study. I have also considered participants rights, including the right to be informed about the study, and any research subject is entitled to withdraw from the research at any time. The study also takes care and responsibility to respect and consider, ethnic and other sensitive issues in the research process. Finally, the information received from the subjects was kept confidentially, secret and used only for the purpose of the study, and the anonymity of the participants of the study was kept.

1.9. Organization of the study

This study is organized into five basic chapters. The first chapter deals with the background, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, significance, scope as well as the limitations of the study. The second chapter discuss about the theoretical and related empirical literatures reviewed from various sources. Following this, the third chapter provides the detail of the research methodology adopted on sampling, collecting and analyzing the appropriate data. Then after, chapter four deals about major findings and result of the study. Finally, chapter five presents the conclusions and recommendations in chapter five.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Ethiopia is one of the least urbanized countries in the sub-Saharan Africa. Ethiopia has experienced political instability, war, famine economic hardship over the course of its history (IOM 2014). Research results carried out in different parts of the developing world show that the number of all types of migrants has significantly increased, which is related to the considerable changes in the current global socio-economic orders (UNDP 2015). Accordingly, alternate conceptualization of migration may not be justifiable but separate models and theories may be required. This chapter deals with explaining the theoretical perspectives of migration followed by presentation of empirical evidences.

2.1. Concept and Definition of Migration

Migration as defined by the IOM (International Organization for Migration) is,

“A process of moving people, either across international border, or within a state. It is a population movement, encompassing any kind of movement of people, whatever its length, composition and causes; it includes migration of refugees, displaced persons, uprooted people, asylum seekers, trafficked persons and economic migrants.”

Migration affects every dimension of social existence and develops its own complex dynamics. That is why; its study become multidisciplinary by its very nature (IOM 2014). It is complex, wide and multi-dimensional phenomenon involving diverse methods and sub-thematic emerging from different disciplines of social science such as; geography, economics, sociology, political science, anthropology, law, and even methods of theoretical physics and statistics (UNHR 2015). Migration is close idea with the mobility of people and can be understood to involve the permanent and quasi-permanent relocation of an individual and/or group of individuals from their place of origin to a place of destination.

2.2. Theories of Migration

For over fifty years' scholars have been proposing a wide range of theoretical and conceptual frameworks to explain the census, process and consequences of external migration (Massey et.al 1998). The difference that exists within each migration flow made it difficult to produce theory.

However, in order to understand the causes and movements, several migration studies are carried out thereby developing some theories. Migration theories and perspectives can be classified depending on the different factors such as the level-based analysis, migration patterns, relevant disciplines and application of such theories (Wimalaratana 2017).

2.2.1. Neo-classical theory

The neo classical theory is the first theory in migration and probably the most influential. The neo classical economics theory is a theory of migration based on the lookout for a better opportunity. It seems to have a fundamental natural and historical link into the human nature and trends of communal as well as social movements in search of better natural resource (Hick 1932). The neo classical perspectives on migration driven by variances in returns to labor across markets, this theory developed to explain migration in the context of economic development in the work (Lewis 1954, Todaro 1969, LEE 1966). This perspective can be classified as macro and micro level analysis. Macro level analysis considers migration as a result of a geographic difference in labor supply and demand, and the wages between labor rich verses capital rich area (King 2012, Kurekova 2011). Whereas micro level at best paid attention to migrant's agency that migration is voluntary, self-initiated and self-controlled. This is to mean that migration occurs only when migrants are convinced that they would benefit from their destination mainly in economic terms (Castles 2004).

This theory of migration, neo classic economics, revolves around the main issues of wages and employment. Though it is obvious where there is employment there is wage, at times this wage concept serves as an instrument to measure the economic gain an individual or a society drives in its economy. Nevertheless, the neoclassical theory is considered reductionist in the sense that it reduces the determinants of migration into economic horizons, and there by ignores the political, demographic and social dimensions the dynamic interrelationships in this process are above all ignored. (Nikolinakos 1975). Moreover, since the characteristics of migrants and the context in which they live differs, the decision to migrate is influenced by a variety of factors such as political, social, historical and the migration policies (castles and miller 1998; Massey et al 1993).

2.2.2. The New Economics of Labor Migration theory (NELM)

The new economics of migration theory has a different point of departure compared to neo classical economics and challenges both the micro and macro approaches outlined above. According to this theory the decision to migrate is not made by isolated individual actors, it is the result of a collective decision (Kurekova, 2011). Their explanation varies when it comes to who makes the decision to migrate and the extent to which they recognize or disregard the socio-economic settings in which migration decision are made. While neo classical theory regards individual as champions. NELM recognizes the household as some important migration decision makers, and the decision would be made in favor of the entire family.

Labor market is not only reasons to migration, but also conditions of other markets such as the capital market and insurance market (Kurekova, 2011, Thieme 2007). Besides, migration decision not made by isolated individual actor but, typically by families or households to maximize income and employment opportunities and to maximize risk (De Hass, 2005; Massey et. al. 1993). Migration is one from of an investment to protect the family or household in time of loss of income. The theory did not ignore the individual behavior of migrant, but it challenges the neo classical approach by comparing group behavior mostly family and households has become a vital standard than the individual role played by the migrant in the neo classical explanation (Massey et. al. 1993; Wimalaratana, 2017). This view considers migration as an income diversification and risk aversion strategy, mainly in developing counter (King 2012; Massey et. al. 1993).

2.2.3. Historical Structural approach

Conversely, in 1970's and 1980's neo classical theory was seriously challenged and overshadowed by the dependency school of thought, which was largely inspired by the structural and Marxist political orientation (Massey et. el. 1993). The main tent of the determinist approach rests on the loss of skilled and unskilled labor and the penetration of capitalist markets into peripheral areas (Gross and Lindquist 1995). Historical-structural explanations shift from an exclusive focus on individual/ family decision-making and consider how structural factors create conditions in which migration takes place (Girmachew Adugna 2019). These structural factors - such as the nature of modern industrial economies which create a demand for particular categories of workers, political factors such as the availability of visas or work permits for certain jobs, and social factors like

access to social networks - can be seen as 'pushing' emigrants from their homes and 'pulling' them to their destinations.

Over a few decades Ethiopia is one of the major sending countries in migration. The routes and destinations of these migrations are as diverse as that of the causes of it. This is often dictated by the circumstances present at the time of migration. Over the years, a pattern emerged as to where in the country, why and where Ethiopians migrate. It is important to note that social class, resources, political instability, gender, and poverty are key variables along which migration from Ethiopia is being stratified, and there is also important sub-national variation. This has grown more visible since the late-1990s with an influx of both skilled and unskilled migrants from Ethiopia migrating to different destinations. Not all Ethiopian migrants have the same experiences, different histories locally, and transnationally, generate different outcomes.

2.2.4. Network theories

Social networks have been recognized in migration research as early as the 1920's (Haug, 2008). Naturally, people have a tendency to communicate with each other. Due to this fact anything that is experienced during an individual's lifetime will be disseminated to others with any available means. Migration is parts of man's experience as such there is a possibility for it to be shared to friends and relatives. As the number of people involved in the process increased, a network will be created which facilitates the flow of information. The most important elements of networks in migration process are families and friends. Network theories explain the perpetuation of migration stress the importance of kin and friendship networks in shaping and sustaining international migration. In line with this, the network theory connects migration with interpersonal relationship between migrants and in the origin and destination (Massey et. Al. 1993). Network theory of migration points to the fact that the creation of a network between migrants and non-migrants in the host and origin countries will increase the possibility of international migration. This is because migrant networks will minimize the risk and costs that are associated with migration such and the difficulty of integration of migrants to the labor market of the destination country. Once the network is established, it will increase in number as the new migrants join the system.

The decision to migrate depends on the extent to which the migrant is connected to communities and home and in the destination. Much of the existing literature has focused on how strong ties to the destination community can facilitate migration by providing access to information about jobs

(Munshi, 2003, Borjas, 1992) and material support for recent arrivals (Munshi, 2014). The role of the home network is more ambiguous. On the one hand, robust risk sharing networks can partially insure against the risk of temporary migration (Morten, 2015), making it easier for people to leave. For instance, in 1965 the United States of America formulate a policy, which allows people who are American citizens and permanent residents to bring their families with the aim of reuniting families, however, the network theory states that as migrant network expand, international flows become relatively insensitive to policy interventions. The network theory of migration has its stake in the increase in the number of international migrants from Ethiopia to the United States of America. The awareness to the policy of family reunification has helped most permanent residents, Ethiopian American and diversity lotter (DV) winners to summon their families there by increasing the flow of individuals out of the country. Furthermore, the presence of friends and families has helped most in getting sponsors to travel abroad.

2.2.5. Cumulative causation theory

Cumulative causation theory was developed by Gunnar Myrdal 1956 (Wimalaratana, 2017) it argues that migration sustain itself for further movement through affecting different socio-economic factors. In the day to day of activity of human life, it is highly likely that people would compare their socio-economic status with others in their neighborhoods and communities. In the present situation of the world and the advancement in technology and advent of internet this secluded comparison has taken a world stance. Today people have the possibility to investigate what is happening in the world and the place they have in global community. According to the theory of cumulative causation as explained by Massey et al 1993 each of migration results in alteration of the social context in which subsequent migration decision are taken, making new movements more likely. Therefore, migration undermine regional and local economy and increasing pendency on the core region or countries, this can motivate further out migration of labor force in peripheral area (Hass, 2015). Moreover, it claims migration as a liner function of spatial opportunity disparity, underdevelopment and poverty (Hass, 2015).

A central idea underlying many of the studies by Massey and his colleagues is the powerful role played by migration networks that link migrants in destinations and potential migrants in migrant-sending communities. The role of migration networks in the process of migration is often manifested in the form of having a family member who is a migrant and/or having a friend from

the same community who is a migrant. These networks reduce the costs of migration by providing aspiring migrants with information about-migration process and about job availability and housing in destinations. According to Fussell and Massey (2004, p.152), “other things being equal, people who come from communities from which migration is prevalent are more likely to migrate than people who come from places from which migration is rare.” What is powerful about this process is the tendency for migration to alter community structure in such ways that promotes additional migration, thus leading to the logic of cumulative causation of migration. For example, in a study of rural industrialization, Peng (2004) argues that kinship networks affect economic growth via enforcing informal institutions. This indicates that networks based on kinship are strong in creating influence on perpetuation of migration.

The cumulative effects of these flows have resulted in the growing concentration of migrants originating from Addis Ababa in America and they have become the largest group of Ethiopian migrants residing there (Getahun, 2007). Migrant networks, which have been in the making for over three decades, have also shaped the post-arrival settlement pattern. This is more pronounced among family and DV migrants. Lyons (2009) reported that cities like Los Angeles, California, and Seattle, are widely inhabited by migrants originated from Addis Ababa dominated ,Washington DC and Chicago

2.2.6. Dual Labor theory of Migration

Advanced capitalist economies are characterized by economic dualism: their labor markets are divided into primary and secondary sectors. The primary labor market attracts natives. It is characterized by higher wages, security, and prospects for advancement. The secondary labor market is filled with migrant workers. It involves low-skill, low-pay and low-prestige jobs. Doeringer and Piore (1971) have described the American economy as having a dual market. Jobs fall into either primary or secondary sector. Jobs in the primary sector are good jobs characterized by high wages, job security, and substantial responsibility and ladders where internal promotion is possible. Jobs in the secondary sector are characterized by low wages, casual attachments between workers and firms, and are menial. Workers in the secondary sector envy those in the primary sector who have both better jobs and higher wages. A typical example of a primary sector employer is a large manufacturing establishment, while small service firms such as fast food outlets typify the secondary sector.

Beginning with Lewis 1954 labor market theory, this perspective sees the informal sector to be a marginalized sector, which is a manifestation of underdevelopment characterized by survival activities of the urban poor. The Lewis model sees the informal sector as resulting initially from its exclusion from the modern sector due to modern industrial employment opportunities falling short of the population growth and a mismatch between worker's skills and structure of the modern economy (Despres, 1988; ILO, 2002; Chaudhuri and Mukhopadhyay, 2009 and Chen, 2012). The model thus assumes availability of an unlimited supply of unskilled labor acquired at a subsistence wage in the developing country sector (ILO, 2002 and Chen, 2012). The model also assumes ability of the modern sector to match this unskilled labor with capital. In short, one structural explanation is the concept of 'dual labour markets' (Piore, 1979). This term refers to the two types of jobs that exist in a capitalist economy. The first are the secure, permanent high-skilled and well-paid jobs. The second are the temporary, unpleasant, low status jobs, which are poorly paid, also known as the 3-D jobs (dirty, dangerous and demanding). These jobs offer few opportunities for progression to better jobs and are often unprotected by workers' rights legislation and labor standards. In many cases local workers are not interested in such badly paid jobs, so they are taken up by new migrants.

Despite availability of ample empirical evidence regarding the role the urban informal sector plays in the economy of low-income households in developing countries in general, development programs and plans have failed to integrate the sector into the overall development effort. In addition, evidence is limited in the Ethiopian context. After data gathering of national house hold surveys Results show in Ethiopia that 1) informal sector employment substantially increased, 2) some production activities such as manufacturing; services; and trade, hotels and restaurant activities decreased while construction and related activities increased, 3) shortage of capital was found to be the major factor limiting work participation in the sector, and the financing of the sector mainly came from informal sources, 4) the level of income per person varied sharply among the various sectors.

2.2.7. World System theory of Migration

The world systems theory is another theory developed to explain the causes of international migration. The theory asserts that “driven by a desire for higher profits and greater wealth, owners and managers of capitalists firms enter poor countries on the periphery of the world economy in search of land, raw materials, labor, and new consumer markets” (Massey et al, 1993:445). Here

countries that were former colonial powers are referred to as “peripheral” countries and powerful capitalist countries (e.g. USA) are considered “core” countries. The theory further explains, “the penetration of capitalist economic relations into peripheral, non-capitalist societies creates a mobile population that is prone to migrate abroad” (Massey et al: 444).

The core concept of this theory is that international migration is likely to occur because of linguistic, historical, political and/or economic ties between past colonialists and their former colonies. Adoption of this theory into the present day modern international circumstance is a very important start before going into depth analysis of its meaning and place in the Ethiopian context (Bisrat yared 200). This would give us an informed standpoint in order to scrutinize the issue at a greater strength and depth. There is an ever-continuous change and evolvement in the international community in all forms of economical, technological, communication and social levels. Here, it is a paramount importance to consider this advancement of global nature to have a potentiated view of the theory. These days the world economy is characterized by the dynamic reality of globalization. A relatively new term with huge economic, social and global issues bundled up in it. Globalization would let us have products made in different parts of the world assembled and packed for today’s consumers. The world economy is more of information driven than, as it was commodity driven a few decades back.

The industrially advanced countries are more set to push the commodity production into locations where there are cheaper sources of raw materials and labor. This same advanced country, which were once a magnate for both skilled & unskilled labor are now a days more of an attraction to the more advanced information suited labor force. It is not nil, but it is rare to find massive labor demand in these countries. The technological evolution of the present moment has made it possible to produce products/commodities in countries that were not produced before. This has contributed to a greater extent in the globalization of the market trend. Labor-intensive jobs are pushed into countries where the labor is inexpensive in comparative terms. It would clearly show that the migration of people and capital would have different features than they used to have. Having mentioned these globalization fundamental concepts in the relatively new world order the world system theory of migration would mean dramatically different than it has typically been in the past. Furthermore, putting this theory in test with the Ethiopian context might have something to tell. This theory encompasses two sets of migrants: capital and people. The capital migration or

movement focuses in the direction of profit. In the more global meaning, it is investment. Investment is becoming a cliché term due to its present-day regular application in all sorts of economic and social sectors.

2.2.8. Institutional Theory of Migration

Institutional theory of migration is another theory that explains the perpetuation of migration along time and space. Every country has its own rules and regulations for the issuance of an entry visa. As such it is highly likely that in the process of request for visa there are people who are rejected an issuance for entry into the county this happens in the majority of the cases when the request as issuance for entry into the country (Massey et al 1993). This happens in the majority of the cases when the request is submitted to the embassy of developed countries. So according to institutional theory of migration, as explained in the institutional theory of migration large number of people who seek entry visa into capital rich countries and the limited number of visas these countries typically offer create a lucrative niche for entrepreneurs and institutions dedicated to promoting international movement for profit, yielding a black-market migration. The theory stresses that looking into migrations potential for economic reward, private organizations will come into the picture to facilitate and sustain the departure of migrants. These organizations arrange migration through different methods such as labor contracting, counterfeit documents and visa, arranged marriages and so on.

The institutional theory of migrations might explain some of the migrations in the developing countries. A study conducted by Sulaimanova (2004) in central Asia indicates that because of the difficulty to obtain visa for an entry into United States of America most of would-be migrants would turn in to migrant traffickers. Ethiopia also is not free from this kind of clandestine migration. A study carried out by Pearson (2003) points out that there are around 20000-25000 Ethiopian domestic workers in Lebanon, a significant number of whom are trafficked. There are also evidences that indicate illegal migration taking place in Ethiopia to western countries like United States of America and Europe by clandestine Operators.

2.3. Migration in Ethiopia

Until the early 1990s, Ethiopia was one of the largest producers of migrants in Africa (Bariagaber, 1999). Even though Ethiopia has experienced migratory flows throughout its history, the movement of Ethiopian civilians became substantially greater in the late 1960s and 1970s (Berhanu, Kassahun, Seid & Zekarias, 2004). Especially after the 1974 revolution, large migration flows started to arise. Most of the migrants from Ethiopia were refugees, escaping political conflict, famine, and persecution (Bariagaber, 1997), often by their own government (De Waal, 1991). The refugees from Ethiopia are depicted as a mass of fleeing individuals primarily interested in safely and quickly reaching neighboring countries” (Bariagaber, 1997). Migrants initially fled for political reasons and to escape conflict. Motives to flee have changed over time however, in later years the motives of Ethiopian migrants to flee from their country shifted to more economic motives.

2.3.1. Socioeconomic conditions of migration decision

Ethiopia is one of the most populous countries in Africa with a population of 110 million (US Department of State, 2019). In 2006 83.7 percent of the population was living in rural areas, and 16.3 percent was living in urban areas. The population is thus heavily concentrated in agricultural activities (World Development Indicators, 2008). In 2008 the population growth rate was 3.21 percent, which was the 11th highest in the world (CIA World Fact book). Ethiopia ranks 169 of 179 on the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) Human Development Index. Forty-four percent of the population lives below the national poverty index, and 77.5 percent lives on less than \$2 per day. Life expectancy is 55.4 years, and the literacy rate is 35.9 percent Ethiopia is a poor country that has struggled with drought, famines, overpopulation, poverty, and political instability. Ethiopia is a part of the “cradle of civilization” and is one of the few countries to never be colonized (Meron Zenaselase 2015). This has not, however, prevented the country from suffering ethnic conflict and political instability. Today Ethiopia is officially a democratic country, although the volatile politics and ethnic conflict have contributed to poor governance which, combined with overpopulation and drought, have led to devastating impacts for Ethiopians during the country’s famines, resettlement programmes, and political repression (Bariagaber, 1999).

In 1973, during the Imperial regime, about 3 million Ethiopians were affected by food shortages and total excess mortality in the country about 250,000 (Kidane, 1989). A decade later, during the Marxist-Leninist Derg regime, approximately 7.8 million Ethiopians were caught struggling for survival, out of which excess mortality was conservatively estimated at 700,000 (Kidane, 1990). A prolonged drought between 1984 and 1986 plunged the country into famine. During the 1980s, an estimated 1 million Ethiopians died from starvation as a result of famine. The present government of Ethiopia has taken various steps of reduction of poverty especially in rural areas, such as, Agricultural Development-Led Industrialization (ADLI), Sustainable Development and Poverty Reduction Program (SDPRP), etc. The government has stressed on the development of agriculture, food security and vulnerability, export development, private sector development, tourism, mining, infrastructure, health and education.

2.3.2. Internationalization of Migration in Ethiopia

In today's increasingly interconnected world, international migration has become a reality that touches nearly all corners of the globe. Modern transportation has made it easier and faster for people to move in search of jobs, opportunity, education and quality of life. At the same time conflict, poverty, inequality and lack of sustainable livelihoods compel people to leave their homes to seek a better future for themselves and their families abroad. At the start of the new millennium, 150 million people, or 2.5 percent of the world's population live outside their country of birth (UN 2015). That number has doubled since 1965. With poverty, political repression, human rights abuses and conflict pushing more and more people out of their home countries while economic opportunities, political freedom, physical safety, and security pull both highly skilled and unskilled workers into new lands, the pace of international migration is unlikely to slow any time soon. Few countries remain untouched by migration. Nations as varied as Haiti, India, and the former Yugoslavia feed international flows.

The United States receives by far the most international migrants, but migrants also pour into Germany, France, Canada, Saudi Arabia, and Iran. Some countries, such as Mexico, send emigrants to other lands, but also receive immigrants both those planning to settle and those on their way elsewhere. International migrants comprised about 2.8% of the world's population in 2000, and 3.3% of a significantly larger world population by 2015 (UN 2015). Most projections suggest that the proportion of migrants in a continually expanding world population will continue

to grow over the next century, in particular as a result of steepening demographic gradients, and the effects of climate change. The Fourth Industrial Revolution is likely to further boost and complexity international migration, notably by altering the ratios between irregular to regular and unskilled to high-skilled migrants as well as improving the gender balance.

Owing to various socio-economic and political factors, over a number of decades Ethiopia is one of the major sending countries in migration. The routes and destinations of these migrations are as diverse as that of the causes of it. This is often dictated by the circumstances present at the time of migration. Over the years, a pattern emerged as to where in the country, why and where Ethiopians migrate. It is important to note that social class, resources, political instability, and poverty are key variables along which migration from Ethiopia is being stratified, and there is also important sub-national variation. This has grown more visible since the late-1990s with an influx of both skilled and unskilled migrants from Ethiopia migrating to different destinations. Not all Ethiopian migrants have the same experiences, and this has a lot to do with the regional organization of migration.

Until the early 1990s, Ethiopia was one of the largest producers of migrants in Africa (Bariagaber, 1999). An overview of refugee flows in the Horn of Africa and Ethiopia is presented in the number of refugees from Ethiopia increased from 55,000 in 1972 to over a million in 1992. Even though Ethiopia has experienced migratory flows throughout its history, the movement of Ethiopian civilians became substantially greater in the late 1960s and 1970s (Berhanu, Kassahun, Seid & Zekarias, 2004). Especially after the 1974 revolution, large migration flows started to arise. Most of the migrants from Ethiopia were refugees, escaping political conflict, famine, and persecution (Bariagaber, 1997), often by their own government (De Waal, 1991). The refugees from Ethiopia are depicted as a mass of fleeing individuals primarily interested in safely and quickly reaching neighboring countries” (Bariagaber, 1997, p. 27). Motives to flee have changed over time, however. Migrants initially fled for political reasons and to escape conflict. In later years the motives of Ethiopian migrants to flee their country shifted to more economic motives.

2.4. Forms of External Migration in Ethiopia

The various kinds of migration depend on the flow, and the number of people often involved, the reasons for their movement, the time they spend in migration, and the nature of that migration (UNDP 2015). There are two types of external migration in Ethiopia. Legal and illegal external

migration. Legal migration is an endorsement by the competent authorities of a State in a passport or a certificate of identity of a non-national who wishes to enter, leave, or transit through the territory of the State (WMR 2019). This indicates that the authority, at the time of issuance, considers the holder to fall within a category of non-nationals who can enter, leave or transit through the State under the State's laws.

A visa establishes the criteria of admission into, transit through or exit from a State. The visa requirements of an individual's travel outside his or her country will depend on the agreements between the State of whom he or she is a passport holder and its international agreements with the transit and destination States (IML 2017). The types of visas that are issued vary from State to State, and may have differing labels, but generally include: student visa, tourist visa, workers visa, marriage visa, visitor visa, business travel visa, and medical visa. International practice is moving towards issuance of machine- readable visas which comply with International Civil Aviation Organization standards, printed on labels with security features.

When we come to illegal migration every nation and country often have rules and laws that control and regulate people who come in from other places. Migration becomes illegal if people do not have the permission of the country or borders, they are entering (IOM 2015). These are people who live in a place without permission, and the authorities have no record of them. It also includes people who visit a country for tourism or education or health purposes legally but do not go back after their permission was exhausted (IML 2016). It means that even though they went there legally, they are now illegal immigrants because they have overstayed the period they were given. Similarly, immigrants who have expired documents, or who came in with fake documents all fall under undocumented immigrants. In recent times, illegal migration has been on the rise many of the illegal migrants involved end up in difficult and dangerous situations, as they do not have the proper documents to get a job, access healthcare, and housing (WMR 2019). The flow of illegal migrants is often from poorer countries to wealthier countries. The people involved often are not the poorest in their home countries. They tend to be people with a lot of information, knowledge, ambition, and motivation, which often fuels their desire to migrate for a better life. Mostly illegal migration is associated with smuggling migrants human trafficking and irregular migration.

2.4.1. Irregular Migration

Irregular migration is the movement of people that takes place outside the regulatory norms of the sending, transit and receiving countries from the perspective of destination countries. Irregular migration is an illegal entry, stay, or work in a country, meaning that migrant does not have the necessary authorization or documents required under immigration regulations to enter, reside or work in a given country (IML 2019). Irregular migration poses multiple challenges to countries of origin, transit and destination, as well as to migrants themselves. Migrants in irregular situation are particularly vulnerable to discrimination, exploitation and abuse. Such migrants are also in danger of being exploited by crime organizations involved in human trafficking and migrant smuggling crimes that constitute a serious violation of the human rights of its victims.

Information about undocumented migrants or migrants in irregular situation is often difficult to obtain or quantify. Estimates vary greatly from one source to another. For example, the International Organization for Migration (IOM) has estimated that 10–15 per cent of the world's 214 million international migrants in 2010 were undocumented (IOM, 2013a). The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) has estimated that around one third of all migration flows in countries in less developed regions were undocumented (UNDP, 2009). Both the United Nations and the OECD include undocumented migrants in their estimation of migrant stocks, but the exact magnitude of migrants in irregular situation remains unknown.

The United States of America is one of the few countries with relatively accurate estimates of undocumented migrants. Using a “residual methodology”, the number of undocumented migrants in the United States of America was estimated at 11.7 million in March 2012 (Pew Research Center, 2013). For the 27 countries of the European Union in 2008, the CLANDESTINO Project estimated 1.9–3.8 million undocumented migrants (CLANDESTINO, L. 2009). In Australia, the Government estimated that in 2012 about 61,000 persons were in irregular situation (Australia, Department of Immigration and Border Protection, 2013). The Federal Migration Service of the Russian Federation estimated the number of undocumented migrants at 3 million in 2013 (RIA Novosti, 2013), whereas the OECD had estimated a total of 5–6 million undocumented migrants in Russia in 2012 (OECD, 2012). From this, one can conclude that, irregular migration is a crime committed by the migrants against the immigration laws and procedures of the destination country.

2.4.2. Smuggling Migrants

Smuggling of migrants can be defined as, from a sociological perspective so as, to include every act on a continuum between altruism and organized crime (UNODC 2017). Every act whereby an immigrant is assisted in crossing international borders during migration is not endorsed by the government of the receiving state. In addition to this, smuggling of migrants is a crime defined under international law as “the procurement, in order to obtain, directly or indirectly, a financial or other material benefit, of the illegal entry of a person into a State of which the person is not a national or a permanent resident”. According to article 3 (1) of the Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air (the Smuggling of Migrants Protocol) and article 6 of the Smuggling of Migrants Protocol, requires States to criminalize both smuggling of migrants and enabling a person to remain in a country illegally in order to obtain, directly or indirectly, financially or other material benefit, as well as to establish as aggravating circumstances acts that endanger the lives or safety or entail inhuman or degrading treatment of migrants.

Human trafficking and migrant smuggling are among the world's most shameful crimes, affecting every region in the world, including Eastern African countries (UNODC 2018). Most concretely in Ethiopia, the need to bolster the country's law to fight this scourge has long been seen as compelling and urgent. More than 90,000 migrants mainly from Ethiopia and Somalia were smuggled into Yemen in 2014. Ethiopia is in fact a country of origin and transit to three migration routes in Africa -Northern, Southern and Eastern. Tempted by job prospects abroad, many migrants use smugglers for a trip where too many end up falling prey to trafficking (UNDP 2017). They face unimaginable hardships - from abductions, attacks, hunger and dehydration on route, to physical, sexual and psychological abused restriction of movements and denial of salaries at destination. In this sense, the new legislation is expected to rise Ethiopia's capacity to fight traffickers and smugglers and dismantle organized crime groups in the region. That is why Ethiopia's recent passing of a comprehensive legislation against the two crimes was welcomed as good news. UNODC - ROEA (United Nations Office for Drugs and Crime - Regional Office in Eastern Africa) joined forces with the Government to make that happened: It provided technical advice to the inter-ministry team responsible for drawing up the new text, while ensuring that this fully incorporated the international Protocols on Trafficking in Persons and Smuggling of Migrants supplementing the UN Convention against Transnational Organized Crime

2.4.3. Migration and Human Trafficking from Ethiopia

According to article 3, paragraph (a), of the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, human trafficking is defined as “the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harboring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation” (UNODC 2015.). The exact number of victims of human trafficking is not known. However, the International Labour Organization (ILO) estimated that 20.9 million people were victims of forced labour globally in 2012. This estimate includes victims of trafficking in persons (ILO, 2012). According to the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) 2012 Global Report on Trafficking in Persons, between 2007 and 2010, people from at least 136 different nationalities were trafficked and detected in 118 countries. During this time, women accounted for 55–60 per cent of all trafficking victims detected globally, while 27 per cent of all victims were children. Almost half of trafficking flows were intraregional, i.e., victims were trafficked within the region of origin. Approximately one quarter were trafficked interregional, while another quarter of victims were trafficked domestically (UNODC, 2012).

A 2018 global study on migrants’ highlights that at a minimum, 2.5 million migrants were smuggled for an economic return of US \$ 5. 5-7 billion in 2016 global study on smuggling of migrants 2018 (United Nations publication, sales No. E. 18-IV.9). Virtually every country in the world is affected by this crime, whether as an origin, transit or destination country for smuggled migrants by profit-seeking criminals. Smuggled migrants are vulnerable to life-threatening risks and exploitation; thousands of people have suffocated in containers, perished in deserts or dehydrated at sea. Generating huge profits for the criminals involved, migrant smuggling fuels corruption and empowers organized crime.

Ethiopia has recently been identified as a country with a burgeoning human trafficking problem, although accurate rates of the number of trafficking victims are difficult to find (U.S. Department of State, 2014). The exact size and extent of the problem is not known, but media, government, and advocacy groups have increasingly raised concerns over human trafficking in Ethiopia in recent years, as reports of egregious human rights violations have emerged (U.S. Department of

State, 2014). Ethiopians are especially at risk for trafficking due to years of war, civil strife, famine, poverty, and gender inequity (Anbesse, Hanlon, Alem, Packer, & Whitley, 2009; Endeshaw et al., 2010; Minaye & Zeleke, 2015).

Economic insecurity and poverty often push families to look for alternative modalities to support the family, and demands for workers in weaving and farming have pulled children and women into human trafficking to meet these demands (Endeshaw et al., 2010; Jibriel, 2014; Ynitso et al., 2009). Childhood marriage has also been identified as a risk factor for trafficking, as past studies have found a direct relationship between early marriage and migration (Endeshaw et al., 2010; Warner, 2004). Labor trafficking is the most common form of exploitation in Ethiopia, although sex trafficking has also been reported, and some researchers suggest that transnational adoption and organ harvesting should be investigated as forms of trafficking in persons in Ethiopia as well (Bhabha, 2004; Lal Panjabi, 2010; Root, 2007).

In Ethiopia there has been a tendency to focus on human trafficking, when actually several cases are that of human smuggling, or kidnapping and extortion. For example, in research by Grabska, De Regt and Franco (2019), girls discussed planning their journey with friends, family members, partners or neighbors and then locating a samsara (agent) who would facilitate their cross-border journey. Young women without connections are often persuaded by smugglers who promise work opportunities abroad. Once they are in the country, the smuggler places the women as domestic workers and collects their salaries for the first months. The women may be forced to spend their one day off work a week in the home of the smuggler and subjected to abuse, often rape (Grabska, De Regt and Franco, 2019, p. 110). In 2018, federal and regional justice officials investigated 535 ongoing cases and convicted 1,028 traffickers under the 2015 anti-trafficking proclamation, of whom 240 were sentenced to prison time (US Department of State, 2019, p. 192). Some of these cases, however, may be more concerned with smuggling. In 2017, 182 traffickers were convicted. No investigations or prosecutions into public officials complicit with trafficking were reported (US Department of State, 2019, p. 192). Federal and regional governments intercepted over 10,100 adults and children in 2018, who were mostly intending to travel to the Middle East or elsewhere in Africa in search of work (US Department of State, 2019).

2.5. Regular Migration in Ethiopia

The International Organization for Migration (IOM) defines it as “movement that takes place outside the regulatory norms of the sending, transit and receiving country” (IOM, 2011) The term includes a number of well-defined legal categories of people, such as migrant workers, persons whose particular types of movements are legally defined as the movement of people outside a State involving the establishment of a new temporary or permanent residence (UNDP 2015). International migration movements can be temporary or permanent and include those who have been displaced from their habitual place of residence such as internally displaced persons, as well as persons who decide to move to a new place (IML 2017). It is a legal entry with the necessary authorization or documents required under immigration regulations to enter, reside or work in a given country. Migrant have the necessary authorization documents or visas in their official passport required under immigration regulations to enter. With this qualified documentation the individual can reside into the country under the country’s immigration rules (IML 2018).

Legal migration particularly from less developed to developed countries, is much more readily available to highly skilled people with recognized qualification workers with formal qualification. Through the International Organization for Migration (IOM 2012) Development Fund: Strengthening Labor Migration Management in Ethiopia project, IOM is working with the Government of Ethiopia to strengthen the Government’s capacity and that of other stakeholders engaged in labor migration management to systematically manage and regulate labor migration in Ethiopia. It also prevents irregular migration to other countries, in particular to those in the Middle East (UNODC 2015). One of the ways in which this will be achieved is through the provision of intensive training of trainers’ (ToT) workshops for selected technical experts from federal and regional government institutions working on labor migration management (ILO 2014). The trainings will be conducted in order to foster the sustainability of the project’s capacity-building initiatives. Accordingly, with the view to facilitate the ToT, this customized ToT Manual has been prepared (ILO 2016). This Manual responds to the demand to provide trainers with a comprehensive, interactive, practical and flexible training guide for effective labor migration management in Ethiopia (as a country of origin), as well as how to ensure protection of migrant workers in the destination countries. The ToT is targeted at helping policymakers and practitioners

to design, revise and implement more effective labor migration policies, programmers and legal migration.

2.5.1. Migration in a Modern World and its Implications on Ethiopia

Migration in the modern world has one key difference from earlier forms national boarder. Boarders block attempts to migrate, limit migration to certain groups or quotes and restrict to a certain economic class (IOM 2012). While migration is still driven by the same basic pressure, it is now artificial shaped political forces as well. Most modern migration flows are economic patterns (UNDP 2014). People are always seeking better economic opportunities. For decades, this has led to a migratory out flow from Africa to western countries. Western cities had plenty of industrial jobs and were economic center (Lucia Kurekova 2012). Expansion of industrialization had given opportunity in America, Europe and Canada so people can move to get better jobs and income. This exact same drive is what fuels migration from Ethiopia to the united states and western countries. Meanwhile cities in the United States were capitalizing new technologies, opening up new industries and offering plentiful jobs. In Europe, migrants also have been flowing in a similar pattern (Dilip Ratha, Sanket Mohapatra, Abebe Shimeles 2011). Plentiful jobs in wealth European nations are drawing an influx of immigrants from Africa, Middle East and Pakistan. External migration has now changed into modern migration by using diversified visa to apply for American visa.

The Diversified Visa Lottery Program (DVLP) was created to provide a means of immigration to those foreign nationals especially from poor African countries without employment sponsorship or family ties in the United States. It is among more than five special visa programs that significantly facilitate legal entry of foreign national to the U.S. and shorten their road toward obtaining U.S. citizenship. Mandated by the congress through the immigration act of 1990, it is an annual event that makes visas available to person meeting the simple, but strict, eligibility requirements to become U.S. citizens. (www.dvlottery.com) The DVLP allows applicants from six geographic regions in the world to be randomly selected and given an opportunity to live and work in the United States of America. According to the American section 203(c) of the immigration and naturalization a maximum of 55,000 diversity visas is available each fiscal year to persons from countries with low rates of immigration to the United States. The state department

randomly draws some 50,000 names from the computer out of more than fifteen million entries for U.S. visas, as part of the Diversified Visa Lottery Program.

There are various reasons why people seek for this visa lottery, it could be that they wish to live there, or work there, some need the lottery because they want to study there. According to migration information source, a reference on global organizations and governments who make their data and research available online, 1 million immigrants have entered the united states legally each year since 2013 (US immigration 2013). The country currently hosts more than 1.1 million African immigrants, compromising at least 3 percent of the total US foreign born population. Randy Capps, Kristen Mc Cable, and Michel Fix of the migration policy institutes of Washington D.C. have found Africans to be among the faster growing groups of US immigrants, increasing by about 200 per cent during the early parts of this millennium. Most Africans are admitted through family reunification channels, but Africans are much more likely than other groups to be admitted as refugees or through diversified visa program. This also presents D.V. as path for transformation and flow of human capital into the US (Journal of Development Communication Studies 2014).

Our modern post-industrial societies and economies require that skills, expertise and experience be mobile and easily transferable to various geographic locations both inside and outside the boundaries of nation-states, to the tune of 200 million international migrants and 740 million internal migrants, as estimated by the United Nations Development Program (UNDP 2015). Innovation and competition, as well as rapid development of information and communication technologies and new media require speedy recruitment, deployment and redeployment of talent into specific, sometimes unpredictable, locations around the world. Yet, pre-industrial and industrial era perceptions, attitudes and social norms continue to build various barriers to population movement, such as concerns about the security of local jobs, cultural compatibility and difficulties with integration into local cultures and societies.

Historically, Ethiopia has had a low migration rate. Migration movements from Ethiopia have been concentrated in the last 30 years and can be characterized in four waves (Tasse, 2004 in Lyons, 2007). The first was pre-1974 with the emigration and return of Ethiopian elite. Refugees fleeing the Dergue regime from 1974-82 characterized the second wave. The third was primarily emigration via family reunification schemes from 1982-1991, as families joined those who had initially fled the Derge regime. The final wave of the Ethiopian diaspora can be characterized by the post-1991 flows that continue today. This last group has mixed motivations for emigrating.

This includes people fleeing political oppression, but also includes skilled migrants and family reunification. Tasse (2007) argues that the Westernization of Ethiopia has maintained the emigration flows particularly as better educated urban Ethiopians (primarily from Addis Ababa) seek to migrate to America.

2.5.2. External Migration, Globalization and Human Network

From the 19th century to the mid-20th century external migration was an important engine for economic growth in destination countries such as United States, Canada, Europe, United Kingdom and New Zealand the so-called new world countries (Andres Solimano, 2010). As of 2005, approximately 191 million people worldwide nearly 3 percent of the world population were living in a country different from the country in which they were born (Ratha and Shaw, 2007). External migration has increased substantially in the past four decades, particularly toward high income countries increasing three-fold from 1965 up to 2015 the fastest growing since the late 19th and the early 20th centuries (J. Miller, Hein DE Hass 2014). From an economic perspective, the direction of international migration is directly related to differences in per capita income and living standard across countries. The growing international mobility of people is an addiction that, by moving from one country to another, people have enhanced access to better jobs, higher wages, potentially promising business opportunities new technologies, knowledge and ideas. All this is possible through openness and globalization of external migration.

There is no doubt that as a result of globalization, regions and nations become more independent and integrated. But the force of globalization has been perhaps most economic relations (Peter S. Li 2008). The growth digitalized technology and communication has revolutionized the nature, efficiency and organization of every aspect of production and distribution. Digitalized technology has hastened the speed of automation and external migration. Globalization enables corporate firms to localize economic activities in different countries and regions by taking advantage of local labor supply and market conditions. The age of globalization has witnessed some major changes in the world migration. Many of these changes are related to the emerging global economic structure and impact such a structure has an advanced capitalist countries and peripheral region. However, there are other changes in advanced capitalist societies, notably the demographic transitions related to declining fertility and aging that produce pressure for these countries to look

outside their borders for future growth in population and in the labor force. Due to this reason developed countries increases the intake of new migrants from developed countries.

Most recently the theory of migration networks has tended to dominate in critical thinking about migration. Naturally, people have the tendency to communicate with each other. The relation between migrants and their friends/relatives at home act as an information network. Due to this fact anything that is experienced during an individual's lifetime will be disseminated to others with any available means. In well-established migrant's communities the functions of social network have been found to be immense, that they convey information, reduce the cost and risk associated with migration, and facilitate integration or adjustment to the life at the new destination. Migration is a part of man's experience as such there is a possibility for it to be shared to friends and relatives. As the number of people involved in the process increased, a network will be created which facilitates the flow of information. Network of migration points out to the fact the creation of a network between migrants and migrants in the host and origin countries will increase the possibility of international migration. A government policy at the destination country also plays a role in enriching the migrant's network (Massey et.al.1993). for instance, in 1965 the united states of America formulate a policy, which allows people who are American citizens and permanent residents to bring their families with the aim of reuniting families, however, the network theory states that as migrant networks expand, international flows become relatively insensitive to policy intervention.

Recently, Ethiopian Embassies and Consulates gained the role of endeavoring to increase the link between Ethiopia and its emigrant communities in main destination areas such as the United States and Europe (ICMPD-IOM, 2010). According to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, matters specifically focused on Ethiopians abroad which are performed by the embassies and consulates include: forming links with Ethiopian expatriates, registration of Ethiopians abroad and the establishment of departments within missions with the task of engaging the emigrant communities. According to ICMPD-IOM (2010), the EEA has seven channels which with it reaches out to its diaspora abroad including: (1) the website of the Ethiopian Expatriate Affairs General Directorate, (2) Visits of delegations and/or single representatives from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs to destination countries where main emigrant communities reside, (3) Ethiopian Embassies and Consulates Abroad, (4) Liaising with migrant.

By 2007, 13 embassies had established service desks dedicated to reaching out to the diaspora. The goal of these desks is to adapt the Ministry of Foreign Affairs' general plan on engagement of the diaspora to the specific local context, to provide updated information on Ethiopia, to organize research on the specific communities where they are working and to inform the diaspora about their rights and privileges set up by the government (Belai, 2007). As an example, the Ethiopian Embassy in Ottawa achieves this mission through hosting events to share information regarding diaspora policies such as the Millennium Bond, Foreign Currency Bank Accounts, and Investment Opportunities with diaspora members (personal communication, 2010). In Ottawa, the Embassy is also working with the Ethiopian Canadian Development Council to host a Forum to provide information on investment opportunities in Ethiopia (personal communication, 2010). This type of Forum is held annually in Washington, D.C., as an effort to attract investment in Ethiopia. In addition, these offices assist diaspora members in establishing their businesses in Ethiopia by writing them a letter of support to receive the investment opportunities in Ethiopia.

2.6. Skilled Labor Migration and Implications for Ethiopia

The current wave of economic globalization has opened a window of opportunity for human capital to agglomerate where it is already abundant and yet best rewarded, i.e., in the most economically advanced countries. This natural tendency has been strengthened by the gradual introduction of selective immigration policies in many OECD countries since the 1980s. What started as an effort to increase the "quality" of immigration in countries such as America or Canada has developed into an international competition for attracting the highly educated and skilled individuals (B. Lindsay Lowell, Allan M. Findlay 2005). The migration of highly educated or skilled people is a critical, controversial, and difficult subject. It is critical because it involves the transfer of human capital, which is a key to economic growth and poverty reduction. It is controversial because in many cases, the transfer takes place from countries suffering from scarcity of such resources to countries enjoying relative abundance (Peter S. LI 2008).

More skilled Ethiopians have migrated to countries in the Global North, particularly the US, Italy and Canada for education and employment opportunities (Semela and Cochrane, 2019). This is a particular concern among health workers; reportedly Ethiopia trained 4629 physicians (including 1153 specialists) between 1987 and 2006, but the public sector retained only 20 percent, or 932 professionals in the same period (Tamrat, 2019). A 2012 study from Addis Ababa University found

that 53 percent of medical students hoped to migrate after graduation (Deressa and Azazh, 2012). It has been estimated that less than four percent of Ethiopian migrants travel abroad on student visas for the purpose of their tertiary education; largely to the US, Canada and Sweden (Kuschminder, Andersson and Siegel, 2012).

The majority of Ethiopians residing abroad are found in the United States and Europe. However, Ethiopians are also found in Sweden, Germany, France, Greece, Canada, Australia, Belgium, Switzerland and New Zealand. (Kasahun Ayele 2015). The Ethiopian Ambassador to the United States, told British Broadcasting Commission (BBC) reporters in 2002 that there were over 500,000 Ethiopians living in the United States willing to contribute to the development of the country (BBC Monitoring Africa, 2002). In 2005, Israel's Central Bureau of Statistics estimated the Ethiopian origin population to be 105,500. According to Abye (2004 cited in Terrazas, 2007), Ethiopian migration to the West happened in four waves. The first wave of elites migrated before 1974. Abye (2004) finds that of this wave, 72 per cent of Ethiopians who migrated to France were from the ruling class. The second, much larger, wave of privileged migration was 1974–1982. The third wave, 1982–1991, comprised mainly Ethiopians who left Ethiopia to reunite in the West with families who had to leave the country for political reasons, or Ethiopian tourists who overstayed their visas (Terrazas, 2007). The fourth wave of migrating Ethiopians started in 1991 with highly skilled Ethiopians leaving their country in quest of better opportunities. The American Community Survey conducted by the United States Census Bureau in 2005 estimated 103,000 Ethiopian-born to be living in the United States and that 62 per cent of Ethiopians that were living there in 2000 had entered from 1990 to 2000.

2.7. Diaspora Community on Out-Migration from Ethiopia

Today, migration from Ethiopia continues with both low and highly skilled migrants but is now focused on economic migration and refugee flows out of Ethiopia are minimal. Although Ethiopia, in comparison to other Sub-Saharan African countries, has a low emigration rate at 0.4%, due to its sheer population size of approximately 110 million people, in absolute numbers it has a large diaspora community. The exact size of the diaspora is unknown but is estimated to be 1-2 million people with large populations in the Middle East, North America and Europe. In comparison to other Sub-Saharan Africa countries, Ethiopians are the second largest group in the United States (after Nigeria) and the fifteen largest in Europe (AFTCD-AFTQK, 2007).

In 2002, the Government of Ethiopia created the Ministry of Expatriate Affairs and the Diaspora Coordinating Office of the Ministry of Capacity Building. In 2011, the Ministry of Capacity Building was dissolved, and the Diaspora Coordinating Office was transferred to the Ministry of Interior (MOI 2014). The objective of these two governmental units remains to serve as a liaison between the Government of Ethiopia and Ethiopians abroad and to mobilize the Ethiopian community to attract knowledge and capacity building in Ethiopia. The mission of these two units is largely implemented in Ethiopian consulates, 13 of which now have diaspora units. These offices have been central in promoting privileges and passing new legislation specific to the diaspora. Ethiopia has developed a draft diaspora policy, which was presented to the diaspora in multiple locations around the world in 2011 and early 2012.

Aside from the draft policy, the government has already implemented several pieces of legislation aimed at the diaspora and since 2002. It has become one of the most active in sub-Saharan Africa in engaging the diaspora. Implementing policies include the Ethiopian ‘Yellow Card’ (an Ethiopian origin identity card), remittance sending protocols, investment incentives, a Diaspora Bond and foreign currency bank accounts directed at the diaspora. The Government of Ethiopia has been active in extending rights to the diaspora and in what Allan Gamlen (2006) terms extracting obligations from the diaspora. The Government of Ethiopia views the diaspora as a key resource to develop the country and has actively pursued diaspora investment. The new policies have made diaspora investment, engagement and transnational activity in general much easier for diaspora members and are resulting in increased diaspora business and investment in Ethiopia.

2.8. External Migration and Remittance in Ethiopia

Remittances are financial or in-kind transfers made by migrants directly to families or communities in their countries of origin (World migration report 2018). Many migrants particularly travel to destination countries along, leaving their immediate families at home (Solimano 2010). The income they earn abroad is spent on the necessities of living, but often a fraction of it is remitted to their families, which is especially true of poor to middle income families. From an economic and risk diversification perspectives, remittance can serve as an intra-family “co-insurance strategy” in which families in the origin country send the most educated, most productive or most physically able member abroad to higher-wage, better employment countries as a way to enhance family income. Remittance (money sent home) and investment by migrants may improve living

standards, encouraging economic development and creates employments. It is also important to recognize that this is the major reason that people move abroad.

Various figures exist for estimating the total remittance flows into in Addis Ababa the capital city of Ethiopia. Official International Monetary Fund (IMF 2015) figures place the total value of remittances to Ethiopia at USD 3-3.5 billion (2014/2015) or 7.4 per cent of GDP. This is based on NBE figures, which put remittances at USD 3.7 billion in 2015. However, official figures from the World Bank are far lower, placing the total received in 2014 at USD 624 million, which would make only 0.29 per cent of GDP. The NBE record of 'cash transfers' from private individuals are estimated at USD 2.7 billion in 2014/2015. This shows almost four times the World Bank estimate. The disparity in figures recorded is not uncommon and reflects differing approaches to data collection and reporting. Which in turn highlights the inherent difficulty in obtaining consistent, accurate data when calculating total remittance flows. However, both NBE figures and World Bank figures show a substantial increase in remittances in the last few years, from USD 790.3 million in 2009 to USD 2.7 billion in 2015, and from USD 262 million in 2009 to USD 624 million in 2015, respectively. Both sets suggest a two to three-fold increase over the last six years. Estimates suggest that over the past 20 year's international remittances inflows to Ethiopia have grown over fifty-fold.

Another way for remittance flow is informal remittances. Informal remittances indicate that do not pass through officially regulated businesses at both the send and receive ends of a transaction (Solimano 2010). All sending and receiving countries impose regulations for RSPs. However, not every sender is able, or chooses, to send money via a regulated business. Rather, they may be forced or choose to send money via an informal method. Informal methods include hand carrying foreign currency, giving foreign currency to someone travelling to Addis Ababa, using an unregulated money transfer operator (often known as hawala), or sending physical goods. Regarding remittances sent by Ethiopian migrants living aboard. It is also very difficult to know the exact amount of transfers from migrants since migrants can use official channels as well as unofficial or informal channels to remit their money back home (World Bank 2012). Very often, official remittance data are problematic and have a lot of discrepancy depending on which source they come from. One major reason for such discrepancy is that remittances sent through informal channels are often very difficult to capture. In the case of Ethiopia, according to the Ministry of

Foreign Affairs (2016), the volume of informal remittances is high and continues to rise because of the following major reasons: (i) limited access for migrants to reliable and efficient remittance services and (ii) the absence of legal status for many Ethiopian migrants mainly in the Middle East, Gulf countries and South Africa.

2.9. Contribution of Ethiopian Diaspora on Socio-economic development

Agriculture is the mainstay of the Ethiopian economy, accounting for 46% of the gross domestic product (GDP) in 2007. Agricultural commodities account for more than 80% of Ethiopia's exports, but the sector is dominated by subsistence farming which is characterized by antiquated farming technologies and low productivity. Industry accounts for only 13% of the GDP and foreign direct investment flow is low even by Sub-Saharan African standards. In 2007, Ethiopia's net foreign direct investment flow was US \$364 million (World Bank 2008b).

Ethiopia's ambitious goals of building its physical and social infrastructure helped spur uninterrupted economic growth between 2000 and 2008, a period that had a yearly average GDP growth rate of 7.5%. (World Bank 2012). This period also saw a major expansion in access to public services, while agriculture grew at an average of more than 11% per year (World Bank 2011). The government has been investing heavily in roads, telecommunication, power, water supply, low cost housing, and agricultural extension services to address infrastructural constraints and to accelerate supply side response in the real estate sector. The road network of the country almost doubled in the 1997–2007 decade. Ethiopia is also building several hydropower dams which have the potential to generate surplus power and make the country a net exporter of electric power to neighboring countries like Kenya, Sudan, and Djibouti (World Bank 2009).

Ethiopia has also been investing in education from primary to the tertiary levels to overcome the challenges of skill shortages. The Ethiopian government has, for instance, greatly expanded the number of technical and vocational training institutions (TVETs) in the country (OECD 2010). The priority sectors for TVETs are agriculture, health and teacher training. TVETs in agriculture are geared towards supporting the development of new farming enterprises and crops such as nurseries, horticulture, spices, fruits, vegetables, and cotton. The institutions also provide training in a variety of non-agricultural fields such as textile and garment production, bakery, hotels and catering, electronics, electricity, auto mechanics, secretarial services and construction. Period (OECD 2008).

According to the World Bank (2010) Diaspora is also a source of investment. The Diaspora, if recognized as an asset could invest huge capital in the home country. While these individuals live abroad for a long period of time, they have a potential to accumulate capital to be invested returning back to their home country. According to the 2009/10 report of Ethiopian Investment Agency (EIA), more than 4.12 billion birr has been invested in various projects by Ethiopians in the Diaspora in the last six years (EIA, 2011). The Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MoFA) also reported that 640 Ethiopians Diasporas have been engaged in Agriculture, construction, health, education and development activities in the last six years (MoFA,2011). This scenario shows that diaspora can play a major role for the development of the country.

2.10. Implications of Ethiopian diaspora Policy on Out-migration

The initial point for the formulation of diaspora policy is the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia foreign affairs and national security policy and strategy documents (2014). In this policy document stated that Ethiopians in the diaspora could play an important role in carrying out research and investing at home. In addition, they could win friends for Ethiopia and try to influence their country of residence to cooperate with our country. Cognizant of the key roles played by Ethiopian residing abroad, the government should take initiatives in creating the most conducive environment for them to play constructive role. Having a diaspora engagement Affairs Directorate General in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and initiating a collaborative work at the Federal and Regional level has, provided foreign nationals of Ethiopians origin exercise their rights in their country of origin. A proclamation was enacted which allowed nationals of Ethiopian origin to opening bank account in foreign currencies. These has tackled to a certain extent the longstanding bottlenecks of the Diaspora. With a view to make the diaspora fully aware of these, development and democracy endeavors of their country and results so far registered, and in order to make them actively participate accordingly. Therefore, it is essential to adopt a national diaspora policy that would protect their rights abroad and to solve domestic bottlenecks confronting.

According to the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopian Foreign Affairs and national security policy and strategy the basic principles of the policy documents has identified main issues relating to the diaspora. It is believed that the partnership of the Ethiopian diaspora with their country will be strengthened by implementing these activities. This partnership will be based on commonly

shared national interest and uses the country's policy directions as the basis to make it more transparent.

- **A sector wide approach:** to give effect to the diaspora policy, diaspora affairs shall be done collaboratively with many stakeholders
- **Effectiveness:** it should be underlined that diaspora policy should support poverty eradication activities, the alpha and omega of our endeavors.
- **Resource utilization:** assuring the execution of diaspora policy must be considered in the availability of our resource and capacity.
- **Complementary:** the diaspora policy shall be implemented in an integrated way with national development policies, strategies and programs
- **Participatory:** the diaspora policy shall be implemented in participation of government, non-government and the diaspora
- **Transparency:** the diaspora policy shall be followed its implementation with transparency approach
- **Partnership:** partnership will be based enhancing diaspora participation and ensure to preserve their rights and interest abroad.

(MOF)The Government has long been aware of the importance of the knowledge, experience, skills, and financial resources of Ethiopians in the Diaspora as a vital contribution to national growth. Indeed, the potential role of the Ethiopian Diaspora in development efforts has been given unprecedented recognition by the government in recent years. And to activate maximum use of Diaspora resources the Government has been aware that the relationship must be institutionalized. It has therefore established formal mechanisms to encourage and facilitate Diaspora engagement, setting up specific departments within Ministry of Foreign Affairs, mandated to assist and cooperate with the Diaspora. In addition to this, in recognition of the need to involve the regional states fully in Diaspora activities, the Government has also encouraged the replication of the federal level initiatives and systems at regional level. Each region has created an office specifically to deal with Diaspora activities and encourage the Diaspora to engage at regional as well as national development level. These efforts, accompanied by a range of policy reforms and other measures to facilitate Diaspora participation, have been widely welcomed. The effort to provide

privileges to members of the Diaspora and enhance engagement might have included the granting of dual citizenship rights. However, this was considered problematic because of concerns over border populations and the Government preferred to issue identity cards for Persons of Ethiopian Origin (PEOIC), also known as a “Yellow Card”. This has proved a useful and convenient way of granting Ethiopians that hold foreign citizenship almost all the same rights and privileges as an Ethiopian citizen.

The Government has also introduced an attractive investment regime which provides numerous incentives to investors from the Ethiopian Diaspora to invest in the country either through 100% equity ownership or in joint ventures. Many members of the Ethiopian Diaspora are actively engaged in various investment activities, including the agriculture, agro-processing, manufacturing and service sectors. During the last decade some 2,353 Diaspora projects and investments, worth about 20 billion Ethiopian birr have been registered. In the year 2011/12 alone, another 249 investment projects worth 2.06 billion Birr were registered, creating significant employment opportunities.

The Policy document has been carefully prepared with the aim of responding efficiently to the need to ensure active Diaspora participation in political, economic and social activities of the country, so the Diaspora benefits and it also contributes to the well-being of the country. The policy is based on detailed research of previous directives and on the implementation of activities, using the best experience of other countries, as well as academic research, experience sharing forums, and suggestions by members of the Diaspora themselves. The Policy document is divided into three parts. Part one focuses on the definition, vision, mission, objectives and relevance of the policy and a review of the global status of Diaspora engagement. Part two deals with the basic principles and major goals of the policy. Part three presents the strategies and implementing bodies of the policy. The document estimates that the Ethiopian Diaspora numbers no less than 2 million around the world; and its starting point is the belief, noted in the Foreign Affairs and National Security Policy and Strategy Document, that Ethiopians in the Diaspora could play an important role in carrying out research, investing at home, finding friends for Ethiopia and influencing their country of residence to cooperate with Ethiopia. In addition, fully aware of the key roles played by Ethiopians residing abroad, it emphasizes that the government should take the initiative to create the most conducive environment possible for them to play a constructive role. This indeed

is why it is considered essential to adopt a national Diaspora policy to protect their rights of the Diaspora abroad and to resolve their domestic problems.

2.11. Contribution of diaspora on decision for external migration

The push factors that make people to externally migrate and other circumstances that led to the diaspora leaving their home country for better opportunities, escaping conflict, discrimination and war are the main reasons. The socio-economic characteristics of the people who left their residence of origin are (elite, educated, poor, skilled unskilled). The countries to which they migrated, and their relative success there greatly affect the potential of immigrants' contribution to home country development. Until the late 1970s, the Ethiopian diaspora was negligible in numbers and global spread. However, political and social turmoil starting in the mid-1970s prompted outmigration (Zewde et al. 2010). The Marxist revolution of 1974 resulted in the overthrow of the monarchy under Emperor Haile Selassie and the installation of the military and communist regime of the Derg. The turbulence and instability that ensued set into motion large scale emigration from Ethiopia to other countries in Africa and the rest of the world. Before this watershed year, few Ethiopians lived outside their country of birth.

Diaspora and the feeling of belonging is a significant feature of the community. Diasporas are usually active concerning the well-being of the community but also of the homeland and willing to return (Mohan & Zack-Williams 2002:218). However, the sense of common identities can change due to the influence from the host country as well as the feeling of non-affiliation by the young generation. Therefore, diaspora and the image of the homeland are also imagined and constructed as the essentialist/anti-essentialist believers explained (Mohan 2002:99)33. Accordingly, migrant communities are often willing to help the homeland and often consider it as their duty. The idealized perception of the home country is the tool for diaspora unity in order to support the homeland's development. Indeed, Diasporas are usually mobile and have the advantage of learning from both resident and origin countries. They often use their skills as languages to be active in the diaspora. Hence, scholars are aware of the advantage's diasporas have taken by being multilingual for instance (Cohen 1997:176). Accordingly, the one effect of global connections and networking between Diasporas consequently was creating a transnational relation. Globalization helps the work of diaspora in the community and the homeland. Among the support

of members of the diaspora to immigrants, helping each other for a sustaining existence was notable. Secondly, migrants within Diasporas can use their social networks across the world in order to gain economic opportunities (Mohan 2002:107).

Naturally, people have a tendency to communicate with each other. Due to this fact anything that is experienced during an individual's lifetime will be disseminated to others with any available means. Migration is part of man's experience as such there is a possibility for it to be shared to friends and relatives. As the number of people involved in the process increased, a network will be created which facilitates the flow of information. The most important elements of networks in migration process are families and friends. Network theory of migration points to the fact that the creation of a network between migrants and non-migrants in the host and origin countries will increase the possibility of international migration. This is because; migrant networks will minimize the risks and costs that are associated with migration such as the difficulty of integration of migrants to the labor market of the destination country.

Once the network is established, it will increase in number as new migrants join the system. A government policy at the destination country also plays a role in enriching the migrant network (Massey et al, 1993). For instance, in 1965 the United States of America formulate a policy, which allows people who are American citizens and permanent residents to bring their families with the aim of reuniting families. However, the network theory states that as migrant networks expand, international flows become relatively insensitive to policy interventions. The network theory of migration has its stake in the increase in the number of international migrants from Ethiopia to the United States of America. The awareness to the policy of family reunification has helped most permanent residents, Ethiopian Americans and Diversity Lottery (DV) winners to summon their families there by increasing the flow individuals out of the country. Furthermore, the presence of friends and families has helped most in getting sponsors to travel abroad. Apparently, this kind of network connection and watching the success of the diaspora makes them even more willing to participate in out migration.

2.12. Socio-economy and the linkage to effects of external migration

One important consequence of out migration is the change in the value orientation of the migrants and its effects on their families left behind. The migrants usually keep contact with their families

to maintain personal links and family tradition. This is an important source of exchange of values between their traditional place of origin and relatively modernized destination. The migrants are now exposed to the modern and urban great tradition of the western lifestyle. It is through exposure that they imbibe new social and material values, new skills, experience, knowledge and an active way of modern life. The internalized modern urban values are consciously transmitted and fed back into the native place through their contacts. They are required by and used for their family's social, cultural and physical progress. The family member that are left behind also benefit from the social and material gains of migrants. But the out-migrated country of the migrants reduces the manpower required for productivity of the country. At the same time, it promotes development for the country in addition to urban growth in terms of social prestige and the resource base of the hometown by way of spreading new urban values.

The capital generated by migration home countries income stimulating technological change in the place of origin. It also helps in developing the capacity of urban areas in improving the economy. The change in the social status from non-migrant to migrant causes change in norms and values, attitudes and behavior, motivation and expectation, material and social status, social priority and change in the circle of interaction. The fertility behavior of migrants' changes when migrants are exposed to the urban way of life. The modern urban influences stimulate them to accept new family norms, post pone childbearing and raise the age of marriage. Another social consequence of migration is the change in the occupational status of the migrants. Migration ensures horizontal and vertical mobility and related changes. The migrants in the new western urban social setting are at an advantage and get diversified work opportunities but they are also in a disadvantageous position as compared to the main citizens folks for the available opportunities.

The citizens of the western countries are relatively better educated, trained, skilled, experienced and active. The migrants find it difficult to compete with them for better jobs since they don't have their destination countries qualifications. The migrants from the lower socio-economic backgrounds are a work and earn oriented group without any occupational choice. Their main citizen's employers on grounds of quality of education, skill, efficiency, caste and class backgrounds also discriminate against them. In the new urban setting the migrants get uncultured into the modern ways of life and adjusted to it by their ability to participate and perform new roles and activities. It is through these related processes that the new values, roles and cultural traits,

behavior patterns and the new social conditions of living are acquired and internalized by the migrants. They gradually become adjusted and integrated into the modern urban society. These processes act as medium of cultural transformation. They promote cultural adoption, adaptation and change in already internalized values of the place of origin. An important social consequence of migration is its effect on the processes of acculturation and adjustment and integration of migrants in the receiving areas. The migrants of different class backgrounds find themselves between the two cultural patterns-the different culture of the place of origin and the culture of the place of destination to be internalized. The culture of country of origin is already so different from the country of destination culture that it will be hard to get along with society. The overflow of migration largely from country of origin with modern way of life in western countries, it is important to acknowledge the link between the societies and their communities and the segmentation of their internal structures on the basis of their ascription are important developments.

The economic effects of migration vary widely. Sending countries may experience both gains and losses in the short term but may stand to gain over the longer term. For receiving countries temporary worker programs help to address skills shortages but may decrease domestic wages and add to public welfare burden. The economic effects of migration for both sending and receiving countries may also vary depending on who is moving, specifically with respect to migrant workers' skill levels. A Swedish Professor notes, "the problem is not migration; it is integration, especially in the labor market. If there are no jobs, the consequences are segregation, housing problems and divided cities" (Traynor, 2010). For sending countries, the short-term economic benefit of emigration is found in remittances. Remittances are funds that emigrants earn abroad and send back to their home countries, mainly in order to support families left behind. According to the World Bank, remittances totaled \$529 billion worldwide in 2012, with \$401 billion of that money flowing into developing nations (2013). Significantly, these figures only account for funds sent through formal channels, so the amount of remittances is likely much larger than these numbers suggest. The World Bank notes that remittances sent through informal channels could add at least 50 percent to the globally recorded flows (UNCTAD, 2011).

A recent United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) report notes Remittances are more stable and predictable as compared to other financial flows and, more

importantly, they are counter-cyclical providing buffer against economic shocks. In conflict or post-conflict situations, remittances can be crucial to survival, sustenance, rehabilitation, and reconstruction. In providing primarily for household livelihoods, remittances are spent on general consumption items in local communities that contribute to local economies by supporting small businesses. A fair share of these expenditures is directed to the construction of homes, health care and education, alongside savings in financial institutions, thereby generating employment in these critical services sectors. Moreover, in contributing to foreign exchange earnings, remittances can spur economic growth by improving sending countries' creditworthiness and expanding their access to international capital markets (UNCTAD 2011).

Factoring the remittance inflows correctly into macroeconomic analysis is also likely to improve the credit rating and external debt-sustainability of the remittance receiving country (Abdih et al. 2009, Avendano et al. 2009). Because they are a large and stable source of foreign currency, remittance is likely to curtail investor panic and prevent sudden account reversals during a crisis (Bugamelli & Paterno 2006, Gupta et al. 2007). Furthermore, future flows of remittance can be used as collateral by governments and private sector entities in developing counties to raise financing in international capital market (Ketkar and Ratha 2005, 2009). These innovative financing mechanisms can be used to raise funds for development projects such as low-income housing or water supply. The diaspora serves as a link between sending and receiving communities, expands the opportunities to access international financing, and facilitates networking. The diaspora also contributes through philanthropic remittance (Golding 2004), and the development of their former communities through hometown associations and collective financing of development projects such as schools, health facilities and community infrastructure.

2.13. Variables in External Migration

The reasons for migration are very varied. In this study our main variable will focus on this situation. The motives of an individual for out migration are usually economic, political instability, unemployment and living standard. For example, in the 19th century, many people migrated from the east coast to the west coast of the United States to seize economic opportunities. With regard to external migration, this phenomenon has always existed, playing an important role in human development, particularly in the structural configuration of the population of many countries (such as the United States, Canada, Australia, and Europe). The causes of external migration may be

economic or educational, but they are often motivated by political, family, environmental or unemployment, conflict and war. In general, economic factors are the main cause of migration around the world. Within these reasons, labor migration is distinguished (when the motive of emigration is based on the search for employment) and the brain drain (or highly qualified migration, which refers to the migration of trained professionals motivated by the search for better job opportunities). Migration is one of the three demographic components of population change and has often been described as the most difficult to measure, analyze, and predict. It is estimated that 3% of the world's population are external migrants, the United States being the country with the largest number of migrants.

Most migrants are looking for an increase in standard living conditions. Living in a crime-free environment, with citizen benefits and social security, is often a common engine for urging people to move from one country to another. The new stage of life encourages migrants to get the best of them in the personal and work environment. When they leave their comfort zone, migrants are faced with the need to take on new challenges: being more independent, living alone, saving, taking on new personal and professional commitments all within the framework of growth and accumulation of new experiences. The positive effects are such that migration brings people into contact with entirely new ways of life. Developing countries benefited from remittances that now often outstrip foreign aid. Unemployment is reduced and young migrants enhance their life prospects. Returning migrants bring savings, skills and international contacts. Job vacancies and skill gaps can be filled.

Economic growth can be sustained. Services to an ageing population can be maintained where there are insufficient young people locally. The pension gap can be filled by the contributions of new young workers and they also pay taxes. Migrants bring energy and innovation. Host countries are enriched by cultural diversity. In the long term, both high and low skilled workers who migrate brings benefits facilitate to their new home countries by increasing income per person and living standards. High skilled migrants bring diverse talent and expertise, while low-skilled migrants fill essential occupation for which natives are in short supply and allow natives to be employed at higher-skilled jobs. Gains are broadly shared by the population, so it may be well worth shouldering the short- term costs to help integrate these new workers. The other positive effects of migration are that migrants get to see new places, meet new people, knows about culture, food

habits and might pick up a new language or two. Settling down by all themselves make them more self-reliant and confident.

2.14. Brief Summary of the literature

Ethiopia remains one of the poorest countries of the world and faces enormous development challenges. Twenty-five million Ethiopians live below the national poverty line and Ethiopia ranks 173rd out of 186 countries in the 2015 UNDP Human Development Index (HDI) (UNDP 2015) lives in constant food insecurity; the United Nations' Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) estimates that 32 per cent of the national population is undernourished for the period 2014-2016. Ethiopia suffers from recurrent humanitarian crises, with roughly 8 million people suffering from chronic food insecurity (DFID 2014: 5). Causes include extreme poverty, seasonal shocks, degradation of natural resources and rapid population growth (Fransen & Kuschminder 2009: 6; DFID 2014).

In urban areas, employment rates increased between 2009 and 2012. Yet unemployment was 17 per cent in 2012 (more than double for women compared to men) and unprotected informal employment remains prevalent (IMF 2013: 8). A particular concern is that, despite strong growth, the urban economy struggles to create sufficient productive employment opportunities for an increasingly educated urban youth (Martins 2014: 26). De Regt and Tafesse (2015: 4) report that educated people in urban areas have difficulties finding paid jobs in both the public and the private sector. Unemployment in general and youth unemployment in particular has become the main concern in the economy, social and politics of both Northern and Southern world. Worldwide employment opportunities and other social goods for young people have been affected largely by the effects of globalization, the neoliberal economic and social reforms and labor market transformation (Jeffrey2010:496).

After economic reasons and the lack of livelihood opportunities, Ethiopians cite the oppressive political context and insecurity as the second most important migration drivers when asked their reasons for leaving their country (Frouws 2014b: 25-26). Ethiopia receives very low ratings for political and civil rights from international human rights organizations. In 2016 Freedom House gave Ethiopia the lowest possible score on political rights due to the government's systematic constriction of political space during the 2015 parliamentary elections, while civil liberties received a rating of 6 out of 7 (7 being the worst). Freedom House (2015) reports that Ethiopia

ranked 32nd out of 52 countries surveyed in the Ibrahim Index of African Governance, below the continental average and among the lowest-ranked countries in East Africa. Few mechanisms exist for airing grievances or expressing political discontent, with freedom of expression subject to serious restriction (AI 2015: 148). Using anti-terrorist legislation and periodic crackdowns by the security services, the government has attacked independent media publications, arrested peaceful protesters, journalists and members of opposition political parties, and used widespread arbitrary detention and torture to silence actual or suspected dissent (ibid; EIU 2015). Freedom House (2015) reports widespread corruption, with EPRDF officials reportedly receiving preferential access to credit, land leases, and jobs. Ethiopia is considered ‘highly corrupt’ and is ranked as 103rd out of 168 countries and territories in Transparency International’s 2015 Corruption Perceptions Index. The presence of the EPRDF at all levels of society – directly and, increasingly, electronically – inhibits free private discussion; many people are wary of speaking against the government (Freedom House 2015).

Ethiopia’s diaspora is one of the largest of all African countries. Exact figures are not known but one estimate is around two million, with large numbers reported in the US, Canada and Europe as well as in neighboring Sudan and Kenya and in other African countries such South Africa and Botswana (Frouws 2015: 11, 132). A 2007 report estimated that Ethiopians are the second largest Sub-Saharan African diaspora group in the US (after Nigerians) and the fifteenth largest in Europe. Family reunification continues to drive outward migration of Ethiopians to the US (expert comment). UNDESA and UNICEF (2014) found that in 2013 the top five countries for Ethiopians living abroad were the US (179,979 Ethiopian-born migrants). The (OECD) Organization for Economic co-operation and Development estimated that in 2013 around 362,000 Ethiopians were living in OECD countries. It estimated that the seven OECD countries with the largest Ethiopian-born populations in recent years were the US (195,805); Israel (85,870); Italy (30,596); Canada (24,535); Sweden (15,494); the UK (12,000) and Australia (10,850). Looking at European countries only, the ten with the largest Ethiopian-born populations are as follows, according to the OECD:

Table 2.1: Ethiopian-born populations in European countries in 2013

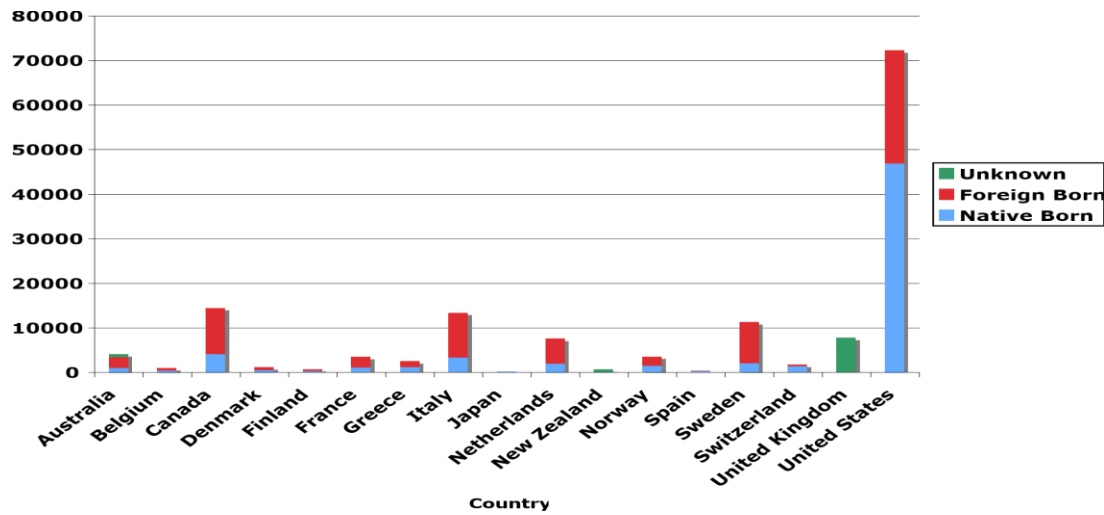
Italy (data from 2013)	30, 596
Sweden	15, 494
United Kingdom	12, 000
Germany	10, 000
Netherlands	9, 242
France (data from 2014)	8, 738
Norway	7, 237
Switzerland	5, 856

Source: OECD. Stat <http://stats.oecd.org/>

The number of people of Ethiopian origin (including first and subsequent generations) residing in the United States, according to the OECD, is 72,245. Other estimates of the Ethiopian population in the United States include 73,000 Ethiopian-born residents and 460,000 including second and subsequent generations (Lyons, 2007 from Solomon, 2007). These numbers pose a wide departure from the OECD numbers presented, which places the US Native born population at 46, 920. According to the US 2000 Census the official number of legal residents born in Ethiopia was 69,530. The United States has been a large recipient of African migrants throughout history.

The below figure illustrates the migration of Ethiopians to the United States from 2000-2012. It is evident from this graph that the number of Ethiopians receiving legal residency in the United States has continued to increase over this period from 4,053 in 2000 to 15,462 in 2009.

Figure 2:2 Ethiopian Immigrants to the United States, 2000-2009



Source: OECD, 2005

2.15. Three categorical variables of the framework

2.15.1. Personal factors

Individuals migrate because they think that they can improve their own lives or those of their families by doing so. Economic migration is triggered by the knowledge (or belief) that better economic opportunities exist in some other place. It follows that where regional and local economic inequality is considerable, people are likely to migrate if it is possible for them to do so. Factors such as poverty, lack of economic opportunity, land shortage and low living standards at home function as push factors, while prosperity, opportunity, available employment and higher living standards in the place of destination are pull factors. The individual's decision to migrate involves a process of weighing up potential costs and benefits. Migrants have to consider general factors such as the cost of travel and accommodation, the chances of finding work and the prevailing wage rates in the destination area compared with those in the home area. They will also be swayed by individual factors such as contacts with relatives or friends in the destination areas, or the potential effect of their absence on the household left behind. Knowledge of conditions elsewhere is important in migration decisions and therefore modern communications play a significant role. Potential migrants may learn of opportunities from the media, from television images or from returnees.

2.15.2. Socio-economic factor

Since the emergence of modern Ethiopia as a nation-state, its political history has been punctuated by conflicts with varying degree of intensity, ranging from passive resistance to violent confrontations. From the outset, Emperor Haile Selassie and the ruling elite vigorously pursued an assimilationist nation-building process in the early ages. However, by the early 1970s, Ethiopia's poverty, gross inequalities, political and economic underdevelopment laid bare the lack of a foundation for such a myth (Keller & Smith 2005). This phenomenon led to protests and violence that ended the reign of the Monarchy and brought about the military dictatorship of Mengistu H/Mariam in early 1970s). The Derg, (aka the committee) thus, strived to create a regular Communist peoples republic in the name of the toiling masses, and aimed at reorganizing the Ethiopian society into a collective and classless socialist utopia. This phenomenon led to protests and violence that ended the reign of the military dictatorship of Mengistu H/Mariam and brought about Ethiopian people's revolutionary democratic front (FDRE).

The Ethiopian people's revolutionary democratic front (FDRE) a coalition of four ethno-nationalist fronts-assumed control of power, marking the begging of a new political dispensation that has radically recognized the Ethiopian state. It was the belief that providing Ethiopia's ethnic groups the right to self-determination would lead to peace and provide a new basis for the unity of the country that served as the main reason behind the federal restructuring of the country since 1991. A combination of the outlawing of political opposition to the authoritarian regime under the Ethiopian People's Revolutionary Democratic Party (EPRDP) then led by Meles Zenawi, political violence (Bariabager, 1997) and politically motivated killings (Human Rights Watch, 2010) continues to produce a flow of refugees from Ethiopia. killings (Human Rights Watch, 2010) continues to produce a flow of refugees from Ethiopia. According to Freedom House, Ethiopia scored 6 out of 7 (seven being the worst score) on 'political rights and civil liberties' in 2011. This is due both to a failure to uphold the rule of law, as well as infringements of the freedom of expression and association.

Following the sudden death of Prime Minister Melese in 2012 and the subsequent appointment of Hailemariam Desalegn to the post, power struggle intensified between the parties that constituted the ruling coalition. With the Prime Minister gone the people of Ethiopia has been

resentful of the dominance of the TPLF in the governing coalition were now emboldened to assert themselves and challenge the status quo. On the other hand, the TPLF was determined to maintain its overwhelming dominance in the political, economic, military, and security domains as usual. Locked in such bitter power struggle, the governing coalition lost unity of purpose and thereby undermined the authority and effectiveness of hardship, corruption mismanagement and abuse of power shattered public confidence in the legitimacy of the system and triggered an outcry.

Since taking power, Prime Minister Dr. Abiy Ahmed has taken series of important reforms at a rapid pace (ICG 2019; Andreas and Samuel 2019). The prime minister came to power with a vision of national unity – encapsulated in his ideology of Medemer – and implemented a raft of reforms aimed at strengthening institutions and increasing political space, inclusivity and freedoms. Dr. Abiy was awarded the 2019 Nobel Peace Prize for Ethiopia’s rapprochement with Eritrea, alongside domestic progress. He was lauded for mediating within the region, including in Sudan following the ouster of Omar al-Bashir. However, Ethiopia’s simmering ethnic and political divisions have deep roots, with structural problems that have been insufficiently addressed under Abiy’s helm. These include conflicting narratives about Ethiopia’s history, an unfinished federal project and tensions over the division of power between the center and the regions. The rule of law has been seriously tested with mob justice being carried out not infrequently, and with gun-toting vigilante groups mushrooming in various corners of the country, jeopardizing the security of citizens.

The country is even in a worse situation than before. There are signs that Ethiopia is sliding dangerously backwards, particularly on security and democracy. The country has seen worsening levels of militant ethno-nationalism and inter-communal violence, a dangerous standoff between the federal government and Tigray region, and an increase in politically motivated deaths. This has been compounded by the government turning to familiar, heavy-handed and securitized responses to law and order challenges, including intimidation and mass arrests of civilians, opposition politicians and journalists, and shutting off the internet. The Ethiopian Human Rights Commission called for security forces to refrain from punitive measures and pursue conciliatory approaches in implementing the state of emergency measures brought in to deal with COVID-19 (HRC 2020).

After facing conflicts with varying degree of intensity, ranging from passive resistance to violent confrontations. Ethiopia has become the most populous countries in Africa, it is also one of the least urbanized African countries. The level of urbanization reached 17 percent in 2002. However, this level was expected to reach nearly 30.1 percent by the year 2020, as the urban areas were currently growing at around 6 percent per year. Slow economic growth and the low level of investments in urban centers combined with high population growth, have resulted in high rates of unemployment and the inaccessibility and inadequacy of existing services for low income groups, which further exacerbated urban poverty (FDRE, 2002). In Addis Ababa alone poverty level is estimated at 60% which implies that 1.7 million out of the 2.8 million People residing in Addis Ababa are categorized as below poverty line (Abebe, 2000). In recent years, urban poverty in Ethiopia has been growing at a faster rate than rural poverty. According to available statistics (MOFED, March 2002), the level of urban poverty stood at 37%, while rural poverty was registered at 45%. Urban poverty in Ethiopia is exaggerated by high rate of urban population growth. The main factors underlying rising urban Population revolve around natural population growth and rural-urban migration. The rural-urban Migration is a result of the scarcity of land as compared to the growing rural population and the need for employment and income generating opportunities to support their livelihood. Urban poverty has thus, been aggravated by the increase in the position that is beyond what the urban economy can support (CSA, Statistical Abstract, 1997).

According to United Nations, the global urban population will grow from 3.3 billion people in 2008 to almost 5 billion by the year 2030 (UNFPA 2018). This urban expansion is not a phenomenon of wealthy countries. Almost all the growth would occur in unplanned and undeserved city slums in part of the world that are least able to cope with added demands. The space of urbanization far exceeds the rate at which infrastructure and services could be provided, and the consequences for the urban poor have been high. Failure to prepare for this unrepresented and inevitable urban explosion carries serious implications for global security and environment sustainability (UN 2006). Coincident with the above fact one billion people one-third of the world's urban population currently live slums (UN 2007). In cities across the globe, hundreds of millions of people exists in desperate poverty without access to inadequate shelters, clean water, and basic sanitation. In the year 2002, 746 million people in urban areas were living on less than

\$ 2.00 a day (Ravallion 2007). The absolute number of urban poor has increased in the last fifteen year the rate faster than in rural areas.

2.15.3 Effect Factors

Human-being has a natural tendency to migrate. This tendency is either an acquired peculiarity as a result of repeated practices over millions of years or coded in our genes. However, it is there and stimulates us to move from one place to another as we did shortly after we rose on our feet in the savannah of Africa and consistently repeated later. The reason behind this everlasting tendency has been our quest for a better life, and if the need for a better life stays there, people will continue to migrate. Today, in Ethiopia about a million people have migrated to the US via the diversity visa (DV) lottery. Currently, emigration from Ethiopia to the US has continued with highly skilled migrants because of political and economic reasons (Tewabech, 2011). Due to this reason Ethiopian diaspora is concentrated in USA. It is not uncommon to find Ethiopians or Ethiopian origin in the country of United States. Several developing countries, including Ethiopia, are making coordinated effort to attract their Diasporas. The Ethiopian Diasporas can and should be important partners in the country's development process. They are numerous and many of them are highly skilled. There are many possible advantages that could be gained by engaging the Diasporas in the country's development. One of this advantage entails financial supports mainly remittance flows.

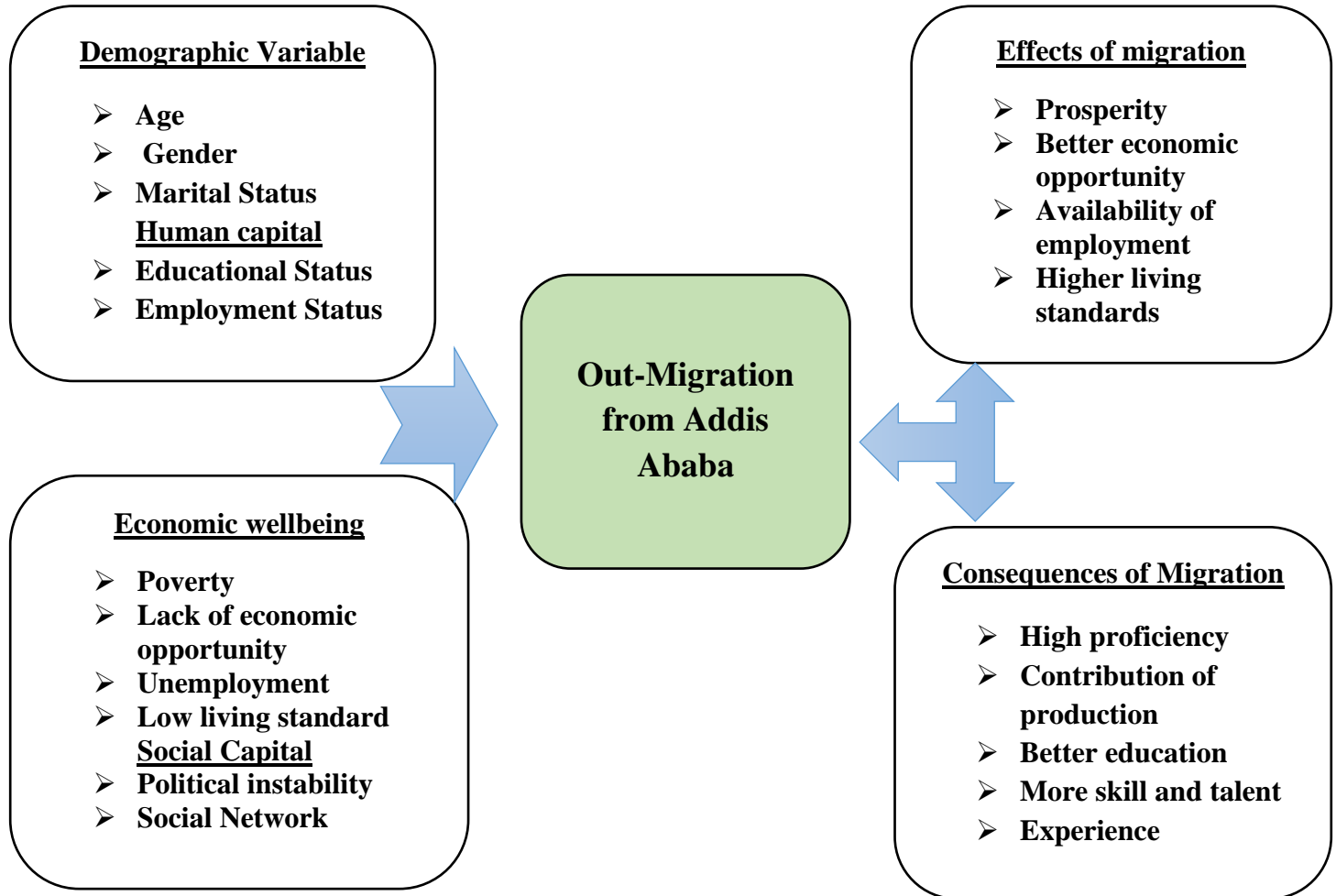
Remittance is becoming source of huge capital transfer from the developed to developing countries. Its size is surpassing twice as that of Official Development Assistance and even comparable with the foreign exchange gains of some developing countries from their major export items. Remittance by Diaspora can be tapped better for the development of a country through organized banking systems to ease transfer and by encouraging effective legal transfers (Kassahun and Birhanu et al. 2004:8). According to the annual report of the National Bank of Ethiopia (NBE), excluding other areas of contribution, official remittance regained amounted over 387 million USD during fiscal year (2009/10) and the figure is increasing yearly (NBE, 2011). The impact of the inflow of financial remittances is substantial in Ethiopia (Reinert, 2006). Remittances play a large role in financial household dynamics in Ethiopia. Remittances are mainly used as risk-reducing instruments and as insurance against external shocks (Aredo, 2005). Bigsten, Kebede and Shimeles

(2005) investigated income dynamics in Ethiopia for the period 1994-1997 and concluded that households in Ethiopia relied heavily on remittances in that period.

In 1997 remittances were the primary source of income for 22 percent of the households in the sample in Ethiopia. Moreover, the mean share of household income provided by the remittances was 25 percent in that year. For the poorest quintile, remittances constituted almost half of the household's total income. The Ethiopian government increasingly recognizes the importance of remittances from its migrants for the development of the country and has taken several initiatives to optimize the effects of these financial flows. One of their goals was to stimulate its Diaspora members to send money through formal channels. The National Bank of Ethiopia, for example, issued a directive on international remittance services in 2006, which served three main objectives: 1) to improve the operations of the formal remittance service in Ethiopia; 2) to make remittances transfers more cost-effective, and; 3) to make the international remittance service in Ethiopia more accessible, more reliable, and faster (NBE, 2006). Most financial transfers are still made through informal channels, however, which make it difficult to influence and eventually utilize this financial flow (ICMPD, 2008) International Center for Migration Policy Development.

Most of the money flow through unofficial channel to avoid exchange rate restrictions, high taxes and tariffs and bureaucratic requirements. Remittances have a direct impact on poverty reductions since they flow directly to poor households and are used for basic needs such as food, shelter, education and health care and startup capital for new businesses (New land, 2004:2). The common argument that remittances are not used for "productive" investments misses the point that poor households rationally give priority to these basic needs, which represent an investment in human capital as well as basic consumption. Spending on basic needs also has a multiplier effect in the community. It seems clear that the 'costs and benefits' of migration cannot be read as a zero-sum game. In principle migrants may create openings in the sending economy, contribute to development through economic remittances and bring back capital, skills and social networks when they return.

2.15. Conceptual framework of the study



Source: Author's Own Sketch (June 2020)

CHAPTER THREE

3. Research Methodology

This section discusses the description and justification of the research methodology, to identify the source of the role of external migration and the contribution of the diaspora community. The purpose of the study was to answer who, what, where, how much and how many questions in this research. A typical choice used in this type of detail information for the research would give clear perspective. This section provides an overview of the method used, researcher's philosophical paradigm, research design, background of the study area, participants of the study and the inclusion criteria, techniques and tools of data collection and the issue of data quality assurance. This part gets a richer and deeper insight into the phenomena of the study and its aim is to provide an accurate and valid representation of factors that are relevant to address the research question for the problems that already exists.

3.1. Explanation of the Method Used

This research applies qualitative method with the idea that it provides the most appropriate way of investigating the research questions in-depth. The first reason for conducting a qualitative study is due the nature of the problem under study. Concerning to the subject of external migration decision, I have got information out of the reviewed literatures. Hence, in order to understand the roles of chosen respondents and in-depth, the study should be able to gather detailed information using unstructured interview guide and other multiple data sources. In order to collect detailed information Creswell (2007) suggests that talking with the study participant and allow them to tell their stories not being influenced by what others said or written in the literature is important. In order to collect detailed information and understand the research problem or topic from the perspectives of people, qualitative data helps better understanding. In order to understand the overall circumstances around these causes of migration, employing the qualitative method helped gather detailed information and realize the roles from individual's perspective. As qualitative researcher I was the primary instrument in the data collection process. This helped me to listen and understand both the verbal and nonverbal expression of the interviewees in every question posed which is the main characteristic of qualitative study as described in Creswell's (2007) book. Supporting this concept Mack, et al. (2005) states that the focus of qualitative research is on the study of participants' thought and experience, and the way they make sense of their lives.

Qualitative researchers focus on exploring, examining, and describing people and their natural environments. They frequently conduct the research in settings involving the participation of people in their everyday environments (Orab, Eisenhauer & Wynaden, 2001; Golafshani, 2003).

3.2. Research Design and Approach

Among the existing types of qualitative research designs (narrative, ethnography, case study and grounded theory) „case study“ is employed in this research. Yin (2003) states that “case study method allows investigators to retain the holistic and meaningful characteristics of real life events” The idea of selecting case study design for this study is to get an in-depth and holistic understanding of factors which affect external migration decision. As Creswel (2007) state the research design development in qualitative method has direct association with the philosophical paradigm followed by the researcher. It is also because case studies emphasize detailed contextual analysis of a limited number of events or conditions and their relationship (Taylor, Sinha & Ghoshal, 2006, P.25). The researcher who follows case study design will pay much attention for the existing context like that of the phenomena at hand. This design helps a lot to investigate those complex factors which exist behind external migration decision. In line with this, this study employed a cross sectional research approach the relevant data would be carried out at the one-time point or over a short period (Creswell 2014). The approach is appropriate to study the aim to find out the prevalence of a phenomena, situation, problem, attitude or issue by taking a cross section. This study involves only one contact for the purpose of the study.

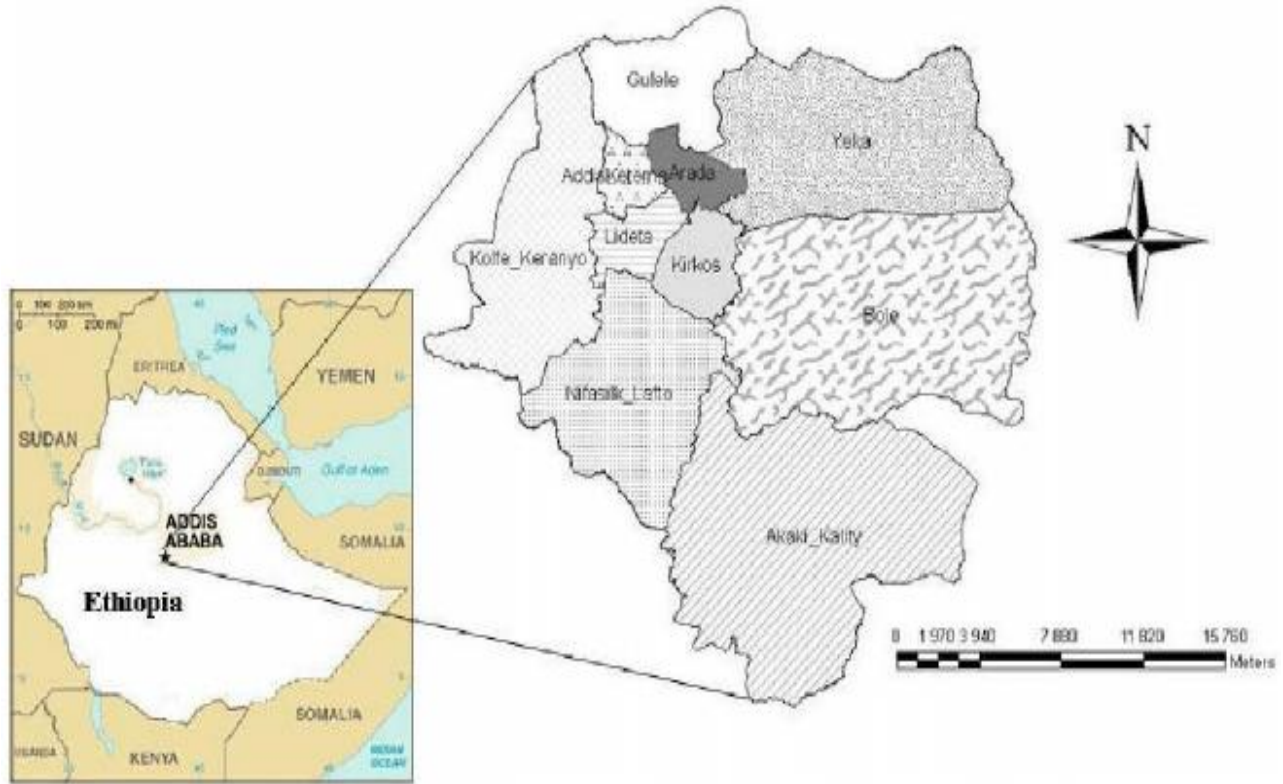
3.3. Background of the Study Area

Addis Ababa is one of the oldest and largest cities in Africa and was established in 1886 and with four million populations. At an average altitude of 2400 meters, it is also one of the highest (UN Habitat. 2004). Addis Ababa has been playing a historic role in hosting the regional organizations such as the organization of African Unity/African Union, and the Economic Commission for Africa, which contributed to the decolonization of Africa Countries (UNDP 2015). Addis Ababa is located in the center of Ethiopia, combined with lack of development policies in other urban centers have given the capital the majority of social and economic infrastructure in the country. As a result, it has been a melting pot to hundreds of thousands of people, coming from all corners of the city in search of the better employment opportunities and services. This high rate of urban migration accounts for about 40 percent of the growth (CSA 2014). Coupled with rapid natural

population growth, Addis Ababa one of the fast-growing cities in Africa, posing critical challenges, including high rate of unemployment, housing shortage and environmental deterioration (CSA 2012).

Since the overthrow of the military regime in 1991, the country has engaged in some decentralization. As such, the capital Addis Ababa and Dire Dawa has been granted some level of autonomy and reports directly to the central government (UN Habitat. 2004). Thus, the city of Addis Ababa has been exercising a level of self-rule. It has achieved a lot in terms of service delivery, local empowerment, community participation, employment creation and housing provision (UN Habitat. 2005). Each city and town in Ethiopia is organized through smaller units called woredas, or sub-cities. Depending on the size of the city, the woredas, are further divided into kebeles. Both are formally independent administrative units but face several challenges. Capacity responsibilities and authorities are delegated to kebeles, but capacity is not yet created at the kebele levels. The city government of Addis Ababa has been trying to improve the dilapidated inner-city slums in recent years ((UN Habitat. 2005). Main activities have included improving access roads, building communal latrines, public taps, culverts and bridges. Community participation has been encouraged by the establishment of development offices, where beneficiaries contribute in all aspects from planning to cost sharing. These activities, while commendable have been confined to a few neighborhoods, and thus not able to bring about city wide impact in terms of improving the living environment of the overwhelming majority of the city dwellers.

Despite the strong economic growth trends, Addis Ababa faces significant development challenges. For example, unemployment and poverty levels in Addis Ababa remain high, estimated at 23.5% respectively (UN Habitat 2005). More than one in four households report unemployment adult compared to one in 10 households in other urban areas, and the informal sector employs about 30% of the economically active labor force in the city (WORLD BANK 2015). The local government is also struggling to deliver basic to all its residents, providing clean water to only 44% of the population and sewages (UN Habitat 2006). Efficiency infrastructures and service delivery depends on predictable and sustainable development. Financial viability must be based on effective exploitation of local revenue base, sound financial management, proper budgeting, project appraisal, personnel management and program execution.



Source www.bing.com/images

3.4. Population

Bole is one of the peripheral sub-cities in Addis Ababa, which covers a total area of about 122.8 km² with a total population of 328,900, out of this number 154,542 are male while 174,358 are female (CSA, 2018). The sub-city has been considered as dense communities of 2,691.1 Sq. m and is one of the rapidly expanding zones of built-up areas (CSA 2019). Hence, in order to conduct in-depth assessment of skilled youth migration challenges and opportunities, Bole sub city is selected for this study. Since bole sub city covers many woredas, the researcher chose woreda 02 and from the selected woreda bole Michael area is selected for the research as a representative. The target area of this study are non-migrants who are skilled youth interested in migrating abroad in order to accomplish their objectives.

3.5. Sample Size

As mentioned above the target population is too large, data were collected from selected samples out of the total population. Accordingly, to save time and less expensive the sample size is determined to gather information from 20 non migrants who are skilled youth assumed as an office

workers, such as secretaries, logistics officers, finance, travel officers, purchasing and procurement officers in which most of the time are service providers.

3.6. Sample Technique

For qualitative research, it is the participant's relevance to the research topic rather than their representativeness which determines the way in which the people to be studied are selected. This means qualitative researchers rarely determine the sample size in advance and have limited knowledge about the larger group or population from which the sample is taken (Krueger & Neuman, 2006). Likewise, the objective of this research is not to generalize the result for the larger population; it is rather to have detailed understanding of the process of external migration decision.

The sampling techniques administered in the research were snowball sampling chosen from the sampling frame mentioned. By using limited number of informants as the matter of convenience this sampling technique was employed to select the participant. After interviewing one individual the researcher was able to be guided to other individual. This was the best way to gather information during this pandemic crisis, so I asked one participant to guide me to other one. Thus, the sample group is said to grow like a rolling snowball and enough data are gathered to be useful for the research. As a result, this study identified respondents using a snowballing sampling technique, in which an initial identified sample would refer to other individuals with similar characteristics and the process continues until the predetermined target sample size had been reached.

3.7. Analysis of Unit

The data obtained from the study participants is analyzed using qualitative data analysis methods. Krueger and Nueman (2006) note that "Qualitative data are in the form of text, written words, phrases or symbols representing people, actions and events in social life and therefore qualitative researchers rarely use statistical analysis. In this research the data gathered is the detailed explanation of research participants regarding the topic under study. After the interview information were collected, by using the data analysis it tends to be an ongoing and iterative process in qualitative research. Therefore, in the process the researcher followed every data collection by analyzing simultaneously and when there is a need to look back the data, it gave the researcher a space to go back and forth. Once the data were collected, the researcher had

transcribed it; that is, it was typed by using the text (from in-depth interviews, notes, memos, documents) into word processing documents. And it was these transcriptions that are later analyzed and aggregated with in different themes.

In line with this Creswell (2007) discusses three types of case studies based on the intent of the research which are 1) single instrumental case study 2) collective or multiple case study and 3) intrinsic case study. Among the above types, this research falls under the first type because the researcher has studied one case which is migration decision making process and analyzed the cause of external migration decision that lives in one bounded area which is Addis Ababa. According to Baxter and Jack (2008) while conducting case study, the case of the research should be clearly communicated and the issues which are not the case of the study also should be first sorted out.

3.8. Participants of the Study

The study area selected for this cross-sectional research is Addis Ababa in bole sub city from where large number of people who are desperate to migrate externally. The study targets young men and women of year ranges between 23-40 years' old who are living in Addis Ababa. This study is conducted on youth because youth concentration is one segments of the society with whom the researcher is working with. Besides, the experiences of youth in general and migrant skilled youth in particular are the most vulnerable part of the society for the research attention in our context. This research has been carried out in Bole sub city, woreda 02 in specific place of Bole Michael area. With regard to the size of study participants, different authors suggest varied number of study participants for case study. Creswell (2007) suggest 4 to 5 case studies to get ample information on the issue raised. For the root cause of external migration, the researcher totally interviewed twenty individuals. Moreover, from these twenty individuals who participated in this interview eleven female and nine males did an in-depth interview so that the study can incorporate the viewpoint of both sexes. Among the diaspora community, the study engaged five interview participants, but the researcher could only reach in data saturation with only two participants because they all left to their county due to corona virus. So it doesn't provide the researcher with enough information for the study. Therefore, the researcher used second option which is using secondary data information. Besides the researcher used document reviews, articles, books and internet web sites.

3.9. Source of Data and Methods of Data Collection

3.9.1. Data Gathering Tools

Since the purpose of the study was to investigate the role of external migration of skilled youth and the contribution of the diaspora community the data was collected through interviews. The researcher was planning on using FDG and questionnaires but due to the current scenario the data gathering has been changed into key informant and in-depth interviews. Several authors agree on the use of extensive data collection techniques while conducting case study (see Creswell, 2007; Yin, 2003; Baxter & Jack, 2008) rather than relying on a single data source. In order to build an in-depth picture of the case at hand, the researcher have used different data collection techniques and sources.

3.9.2. Primary Data Collection Tools

Primary data of the study was obtained from primary sources; primary source of data was collected from non-migrant individuals. The primary data of the study gathered from key informant interviews were through telephone calls and face to face interview maintaining our social distance. Data collection process of this study depends on primary data sources. Primary data sources are those which are collected fresh and for the first time, and thus happen to be original in character (Kothari, 2004). The two data collection techniques (In-depth interview and document review) used in this study falls under these categories.

3.9.3. Key Informant interviews (KII)

Key informant interviews were held with purposefully selected individuals who believe to have a good reason to migrate externally. The in-depth interviews were held with non-migrants who are skilled youth. Each recorded interview session took 30 up to 50 minutes in length. The in-depth interview checklist is prepared based on the objectives to be addressed and the information gathered from different literatures. Since every individual whom the researcher interviewed were educated and have a good educational background all the checklists are prepared in English for the purpose of interview. The in-depth interview checklist is open ended and as Creswel (2007) wrote open ended questions would better allow the researcher to listen the perspective of participants than the closed ended one.

This research exerted maximum efforts to include the different spectrum of views from various individuals of different professional and social background. Unstructured interviews were used to conduct interviews using open ended questions. Unstructured interview requires little structure and few topics are discussed to be covered in detail, and it is designed to explore the important reasons and desires of the information as Kothari stated in 2004. The main reason for unstructured interview is to get in-depth understanding about the topic; it also allows the flow of interview to feel like they are in every day to day conversation. It tends to be more informal and open-ended allowing freedom of expression to determine their views in their own way.

3.9.4. Secondary Data Collection Tools

Secondary data provides some background facts and information for the study. Secondary data was collected from review of reports, publication, articles, figures and internet web sites. Moreover, secondary data was collected from different relevant literature, such as publication, books, and government and non-government official documents which supported the researcher to analyze the plan and strategies of the participants of the diaspora community.

3.10. Methods of Data Collection

Qualitative data were used to provide a comprehensive analysis of the research problem. Through the whole research process especially through this pandemic crisis it was not as expected before, but a fair amount of data was collected. One basic consideration during this research and analysis process was to meet some standards of validity and trustworthiness, which and mainly to do with descriptive and interpretative validity (Atheide & Johnson, 1999, Seal 1999). The qualitative information obtained from each respondent of the interviews were read and studied several times and were presented and outlined through interpreted until patterns start to emerge meanings and explanations to the perception of the informants.

3.11. Data Analysis Techniques

The data analysis technique convergence adds strength to the findings as the various strands of data are braided together to promote a greater understanding of the case (Baxter & Jack pp.554). The categorization of data was exclusive in those small aspects of data in the category which belong to only one category. As a qualitative researcher, it is true the researcher will make interpretation of the data collected, which is a bit hard for the researcher to separate the

participant's background, history or prior understanding of the issue (Creswell, 2007). The trustworthiness of the information can also be assured through data triangulation. The triangulation can be made by confirming the information collected from an in-depth interview through. Regarding triangulation Knafl and Breitmayer (1989) as cited in Baxter and Jack (2008) stated that triangulation of data sources is a primary strategy used in case study since the phenomena should be viewed and explored from multiple perspectives. Apart from this, verification of reliability was insured by posing as many different questions as possible and raising similar or the same questions in different ways.

From this research, the researcher have benefited from initiating the investigations by asking my interviewees to narrate their life stories (on oral histories as a good method of gathering information in qualitative research (Thompson 1978; Denzin 1989; Plummer 2001). This tends to put the interviewees at ease and provides researchers with valuable information regarding the basic facts about, and important events in, the respondents' lives. In keeping with the premises of interpretative sociology, it also gives room to the subjects' own interpretations of their life experiences, in our case, of the process that led to their decision to leave their home country and their choice of destination. Basic factual information aside, these accounts also offer initial insights into the relative significance of relevant events and circumstances for the decision to migrate, and the sequence in which they impacted and shaped that decision. They can also reveal possible class, gender, employment status and other educational background differences, which then need to be followed up with the help of other their interviews.

The individuals' accounts of the phase in which they prepared for migration should also be checked carefully for their narratives of how they performed social roles and adhered to, or deviated from, the expectations and obligations associated with those roles. Attention to the ways in which the individuals position their cause of migration which initiates the context of their local social relations is also well worth the effort. When it comes to respondents migrant families what kind of various modes of communication do they use in order to keep contact with them or did they proceed largely or in part on their own and met with opposition in their families and social circles, and what does this tell us about the hold of their social group over its members? This will create a good qualitative account of migrants' experiences based on life stories on the decision-making process.

So many scholars had many researchers done on out migration. This scholar did their research on cause of international migration and suggested that what the solution should be. Especially many scholars have done their research on migration of the Middle East people who migrate to Arab countries who have low education and people who migrate from rural areas for low labour cost. The other scholars research was on internal migration, poverty, low levels of education, and relatively low levels of connectivity continue to characterize the lives of much of Ethiopia's rural population. Indeed, despite rapid economic growth migration of people from rural to urban areas. The other scholar present in the contribution that migrant workers make to their home economies. Scholars agree that migration presents meaningful opportunities to build both origin and destination country economies. An example of such mutual benefit is seen in the impact that the income earned by migrants in migration countries can have upon their local economies. Contributions by migrants to families in their countries of origin have been said to form a significant portion of the foreign exchange receipts of these labor export countries. Consequently, this income can also have a solid impact on local development. The role that immigrants play in promoting development and poverty reduction in countries of origin, as well as the contribution they make towards the prosperity of destination countries, should be recognized and reinforced.

It has provided an overview of international migration, followed by types of international migration and migration theories. By critically reflecting on these theories, it has also attempted to identify the strengths and weaknesses of some of the overarching explanations of international migration. scholars have shown that migration has become an area of popular research among a wide range of researcher's consequent to the migration process becoming more complex, regular, and acquiring a more global character. Various researchers have attempted to explain migration in terms of cause, development, and application. This has led, the argued, to the emergence of a multitude of theories on migration that explain various dimensions of the phenomenon in detail, and yet lacks a holistic approach to migration that would enable clearer comprehension of the issue.

However, there is skepticism about the new interest in migration and development. This debate has never been free from political influence, and some scholars argue that the new interest is a reaction to the previous failed development mantra, but most scholars only mentioned about the core causes of migration and the contribution of Diasporas for their home country. They do not

give special attention to the solution to the problem. As discussed earlier in the study I believe there is a need to improve our knowledge of its nature. If skilled youth of Ethiopia could collaborate with the diaspora community, they could provide a great deal for the development of the country. Ethiopian government should give special attention to the skilled young people who are migrating continuously. Large number of skilled migrants are living, or they are intending to leave their countries for a better life opportunity. Government policy should give special attention to why this skilled youth are migrating and what should be done about it. If these skilled individuals could stay in their home countries, they could be a big asset for the development of the country. The other policy which should be amended is about Diasporas contribution. Our government policy on the diaspora community is bureaucratic, corrupted and the procedure is strangled with one another that it is hard for investors to invest in the country. The policy should be more at ease and attractive so that they can invest in any kind of investment which they are interested in.

CHAPTER FOUR

INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the main findings gathered through different data collection techniques (in-depth interviews, key informant interviews and document review). Baxter and Jack (2008) note that there is no single acceptable approach to report a case study. However, there are some recommended tools in such case studies like narrating the story of the participants, by providing a sequential report, or addressing each proposition. Accordingly, I have tried to address the pre-specified propositions with brief story of the Participant.

4.1. Profile of the Respondents

This section is concerned with the description of the background characteristics of study participants which is collected using questions prepared for this purpose. The background information is believed to show us the current status of study participants besides introducing who the study participants are. In line with this, circumstances which predispose causes of external migration are pointed out. Some of selected background characteristics (sex, age, marital status, employment status, educational level) are discussed below.

Sex: as it is discussed above twenty participants, secretaries, logistics officers, finance, travel officers, purchasing and procurement officers in which most of the time are service providers are selected. In order to incorporate the views of both sexes, I interviewed nine males and eleven female respondents. It further helped me to compare participants' narratives in regard to the factors which expose external migration. In regard to the causes of external migration it wasn't hard for me to get respondents but when it comes to diasporas I was hoping to interview eight migrant returnees but due to this covid-19 pandemic they left to their country and I remained with only two returnees which is difficult for my study to balance so my only option is to use secondary data which is document review.

Age: As it is specified in the eligibility criteria, the participants of this study fall under the young and skilled categories for the causes of migration. The registered data I got from International Organization for migration report from 2018-2019 also confirm that most of the returnees are in the young age category but they also included elders for the study. Note that, according to IOM report special attention was paid to ensure group interview participant profiles were varied to

encourage and promote discussions with varying perspectives. Interview participants included but were not limited to educators, health professionals, business professionals, student organization members, young professionals, leaders of diaspora organizations, religious leaders, cultural and arts professionals, legal professionals and members of the Imperial family.

Marital status: From twenty participants, eight of them (case four, case seven and case eight) are married and the rest twelve respondents are bachelors. Almost most of the respondents is not married. Respondent who are female and married are under the age of 26-35. While the other participant who is not married fall under the age of 23-31. When we come to the male respondent's individuals age from 28-39 are married and the other respondents who are under the age of 25-35 are not married. Showing that even though people are married and have kids this situation will not stop them from migrating externally.

Educational status: Based on the data collected, every respondent is educated. Five of the participants have diploma. thirteen of the respondents have degree from different well-known universities and the rest of the two individuals have master's degree. The research findings stated here indicates that, all of the study participants are educated. This may have partly contributed for young individuals to migrate externally. Since they are well educated participants with a good educational background, they know the value of education. This informant mentioned that they have gone through so much of effort and challenges to get to this point but after that things didn't go as they planned and hoped. In reality they faced a lot of obstacles in their life even though they are well educated; this kind of situation forces them to flee from their country.

Employment status: out of twenty participants of which I have interviewed three of the respondents were not employed. After graduation they are first time job seekers in search for job opportunity, but they couldn't find any line of work since they lack experience. The rest of seventeen respondents are fully employed but this participant work under low salary. In fact, most of the respondent have low income wages and due to this reason, their salary only covers their rent, food items and other miscellaneous expenses. In which this indicates that at the end of the month they are left empty handed without any savings. If somebody is sick from their family or injured, they fell short of money for health treatment. They can't improve their living standard due to low income wages. In this case here one can assume that low income wages of employment

states of youth and their challenging lifestyle of their family members is one of the major factors which encourage skilled youth to decide to migrate.

Table 1- Socio-demographic information of the participant

Participants	Sex	Age	Marital status	Educational level	Employment status
Five participants	Female	28-35	Married	diploma	5 years and above
Six participants	Female	23-31	Single	degree	4 years and above
Four participants	Male	25-39	Married	Diploma and degree	6 years and above
Five participants	Male	25-32	Single	Masters	3 years and above

4.2. Cause of out migration in Addis Ababa

The current study was guided by some interpretive ways by means of which the research aimed to view the narrative against the context in which it was set and the subjective viewpoints of the participants. Participants of this research have their conduct and experiences which are based on local knowledge which from part of the interview of the group that they expressed what matters to them and give meaning to their problematic experiences. With most of the respondents, with key informants and willing individuals, in-depth interviews were conducted independently of the unstructured interviews. The interview guide was equally useful for in-depth interviews, but this time acted as thematic guide and it was more flexible. Since analysis transforms data into findings by bringing order, structure and meaning to the mass of collected data (Patton, 2002, in de Voss et al., 2005). The analytical process does not proceed tidily or in a linear fashion but is more of a spiral process. It entails reducing the volume of the information, sorting out significant from irrelevant facts, identifying patterns and trends, and constructing a framework for communicating the essence of what was revealed by the data.

➤ THEMES

Three themes emerged from participants:

- ❖ Individual factors

- ❖ Socio-economic factors
- ❖ Effect factors

4.2.1. THEME 1: Individual Factors

The interview guide was divided into three main parts dealing with different sets of questions. The first part comprised general personal questions such as age, gender, educational background and employment status. The second part comprised a general overview of the respondent – reasons for moving, where, why and future plans etc. The final part contained how Ethiopian Diasporas contribute in socio-economic activities for the development of the country not with interview but through secondary data like book reviews.

4.2.2. THEME 1:1 Individual Factors of External Migration

Many factors that influence migration are difficult to predict. While social, political and economic developments are exceptionally difficult to predict precisely, judgments can be made based upon current situations. Ecological disruption is easier to preempt as there is a large body of scientific evidence to suggest that this factor will be a cause for concern in the near future. Increasing levels of intolerance, economic disparities between countries as well as the threat of political and its associated impacts are all key factors that drive migration and population movements. The major factors that influence population movements and migration are different when it comes to every individual. Based on the following data which the researcher has gathered there are many reasons for an individual to migrate. Next, we will explore the factors which are affecting respondents for the cause of migration will be as follows.

4.2.2.1. Sub-theme 1: Root cause of external migration

Case 1

The participants in particular expressed their concepts in their way with different angles. Each participant has its own particularly reason to migrate externally. Respondent's replayed poverty in Addis Ababa is exasperating daily due to high inflation within the country. Due to low income (low salary) wage many people are unable to fulfill their basic needs, indicating having a house for the poor in Addis Ababa is unimaginable. Most of Addis Ababa People have poor standard of

living and many of them are only covering for their daily food consumptions. Especially house rent price in the town is too high and the poor are unable to rent a house with a high price. Participants identified various factors for urban poverty in Addis Ababa. Among the factors includes low living standard, expensive house rent, poor sanitation and inefficient income (salary). As the conversation continued with participants, they said living in this Addis Ababa is very difficult and challenging. In line with this case, one of the respondents expressed her situation about her life,

“Some of us live in a slum house as you know slum houses are unplanned houses which are built tightly and closely with each other. Construction of slum houses is built with mud and woods. When there is rain half of the house mud will be washed out due to heavy rain. Some part of the roof top has a hole, so the rain goes straight into the so-called living room. It also gives out this bad smell when it rains, and it is bad for my health. Slum houses are not only places of poverty, they also lack basic services like drinkable water and there is poor sanitation.

Since she cannot afford to rent a good house because of her low salary which is only 3000 birr, with her low income, she has to divide it to house rent, food, cloth and she also have to support her family who are living in the countryside.

Finally, she said

“Do you call this life? Do you think my life will ever change if I continue this way? This is the ugly side of life of poverty. Whatever you call it I am willing to do anything, so my only life alternative option is to externally migrate. She said she has filled the DV lottery form to leave for America and waiting for the results”.

Case 2

In terms of age, youth groups were affected by poverty. Many skilled youths in Addis Ababa town did not have a means for generating income and there is limited number of employment opportunity for the youth. Addis Ababa youth unemployment in Ethiopia has confirmed that unemployment in urban Ethiopia is largely higher among relatively better trained youth. These are youth joined the labor market for the first-time with the ambition of acquiring jobs in the public sector and remained unemployed on average for four years or even more for those waiting for a white-collar job. However, the incidence of unemployment and unemployment durations are

higher among skilled youth from family with worse off household welfare. Unemployment incidence among educated youth attributed to inherent education system orientation that shapes the aspiration and attitude of young people towards certain jobs. The increased number of educated youths in the 2000s has also intensified jobs entry competition in the labor market among youth. At the same time the reduction of public sectors as a result of structural adjustment imposition has shrunk the job pool and broke the direct linkage of education and employment.

The next respondent whom I interviewed stated his situation as follow: -

“I am 34 years old and I have to be ready to get married for my age. Every day my mother nags me about getting married and giving her grandchildren. Since I don’t have any job I cannot think of marriage and having my own family. Though I know that I am old enough to have my own family, my own house and lead independent live. But I couldn’t; I don’t have enough money to get married let alone to have children of my own. I have to wait for better days to come.

This indicates that unemployment in Addis Ababa has a strong impact on living standard. Skilled youth unemployment is a common problem in Addis Ababa. It restrains the contribution of the larger segment of the population to the economy, which in turn has social and economic consequences for the country. In fact, it keeps an individual from doing what they desire to do. For young people employment is not about working or not working, but they value employment from the perspectives of the ability to make a living from the employment (income). However, despite these efforts in Ethiopia skilled youth unemployment remain widespread, particularly urban youth unemployment rate is one of the highest in Ethiopia.

➤ **THEME 2:**

4.2.2.2. Socio-economic Factors of External Migration

Economic factors relate to the labor standards of a country, its unemployment situation and the overall health of its economy. If economic conditions are not favorable and appear to be at risk of declining further, a greater number of individuals will probably migrate to one with a better economy. Often this will result in people moving from poor to rich countries. As the low- and middle-income countries of today continue to develop and the high-income countries experience slower economic growth, migration from the former could decline. Economic migrants are drawn towards international migration because of the prospect of higher wages, better employment

opportunities and, often, a desire to escape the domestic situation of their home country. These migrants are most likely to come from middle-income countries where the population is becoming increasingly well educated. Salaries and wages, however, are likely to remain relatively low compared to those of individuals with a similar educational background in other, higher-income countries. This disparity has the potential to lead to some highly skilled individuals from developing countries migrating to more developed countries. This form of migration is known migration and has historically been the main form of economic migration.

➤ **Sub-theme 2.1:**

4.2.2.3. Socio-economic Factors

Case 3

As mentioned on the above unemployment in the country is a very sensitive subject within the country. Ethiopia witnessed progressive achievement in education through the adoption of education for all initiatives. However, in the country skilled youth in general urban youth in particular have experienced the highest rate of unemployment. Due to rise in education attainment among youth and the limited economic opportunities for skilled labor, unemployment is widespread among educated young people. A study conducted on the nature youth urban unemployment in Ethiopia has confirmed that unemployment in urban Ethiopia is largely higher among relatively better trained youth. These are youth joined the labor market for the first-time with the ambition of acquiring jobs in the public sector and remained unemployed on average for four years or even more for those waiting for a white-collar job. The same history goes for the following respondent:

“It’s difficult to be employed in this country”. Usually they said, it’s common to see university graduates especially if they are first time jobseekers, they might stay without a job from two to three years. Nobody is interested to hire an individual without years of experience which makes it even more difficult to get a job. The fact that these new graduates are no more in a position to get a job as quickly as they hoped they would be frustrated. Since these fresh graduates are very eager to get a job it’s not a surprise to see degree holders to be hired without their profession. From their experience one of respondent told me, she graduated with business management but now she is working as a secretary, the other individual told me he has his degree with chemical engineering

“I have my bachelor’s degree in chemical engineering, and it has been four years since I graduated. For the last three years it was impossible for me to find a job. Currently I have been employed and my new job is painting new houses and decorating roof top. It’s really heart breaking, I never expected my life will turn out this way, so I am willing to migrate”

Both respondents replied there is no hope and there is no better opportunity for us here in this country”. Another other respondent replayed:

“I have graduated from university in accounting before two years ago. I have been searching for a job for about two years now, but I only find jobs which is temporary meaning from three to five months. I have been searching for a permanent job which is very difficult to find. I am 26 years old, but I don’t have any money. I have been asking my parents for money when I was a student. After graduation I thought I was the one to give them back the money for the times they helped me out when I was a student. But look where I am now. So, the only choice which I have is to take money from my family, so that I can travel by transport in search for a job. In this condition, am tired of continuing my life this way and I feel like am mooching of off my parents. I will be happy, and I will not hesitate for second to migrate if I have the chance”

Unemployment incidence among educated youth attributed to inherent education system orientation that shapes the aspiration and attitude of young people towards certain jobs. The increased number of educated youths in the 2000s has also intensified jobs entry competition in the labor market among youth. At the same time the reduction of public sectors as a result of structural adjustment imposition has shrunk the job pool and broke the direct linkage of education and employment (Camfield 2011:683).

Unemployment is the major social problem in urban Ethiopia. In Addis Ababa rural- urban migration exacerbated the situation (BoFED, 2012: 47). The national labor force survey data from 2013 shows that unemployment in Addis Ababa is (25.1) much higher than average urban unemployment rates (16.5) of the country (CSA 2013:4). Generally speaking, as unemployment rates in the last five years in the city have been declined. However, when we look at youth unemployment trends it was somehow declined between 2009 and 2011. But from 2011 onwards it has started slightly rising. The reason for the rise of youth unemployment rates can be the prevailing of excess graduates from colleges and universities. For instance, the number of

graduates that joined the labor market has risen from about 55,000 in 2009 to above 79,000 in 2013 (MoE 2013:14) with annual rates of growth of 9.4.

Case 4

The other individual whom I interviewed has degree in his academic achievement. He is employed in private limited company which exports coffee. He is the team leader of his department for standard and quality of the coffee. He stated in his situation as:

“I have been working in this department for the last four years. At first when I signed up for the job my salary was 4,000 birrs, but within three years my salary rose to seven thousand birr. I am happy that my salary is rising every year and am not complaining either, but there is no change in my life. Every year when my salary rises my other costs, or my miscellaneous expenses also rises and by the end of the month I am empty handed. He also explained I have rented a house which is very small, and it is only one room. Within that small place my bed is in the salon, my kitchen is at the corner of the salon, and my living room is in the middle of the salon, I have to share the bathroom with other people who are living in the compound. Since the shower room is in a bad condition, I have to use public shower house. Even though my salary is increasing every year but there is no change in my life.”

The conversations between me and the participant gave me an impression on how people are desperate and in need of changing their lives. Poverty and living standard make an individual lose hope in their lives. It makes them think that there is no hope and better future for themselves. Most of them mentioned due to low income that they receive from their salary, survival for long time is an unimaginable. They have to pay for everything starting from food to cloth, house rent some of them pay for electric and water bill. They are also supporting their brothers, sisters, father or mother, they must pay for their kids' education, transportation and so forth with that limited amount of salary. That is the reason why they cannot survive for a long time if they don't receive their salary monthly. To put it bluntly, this respondent receives income that are low to purchase what they need for long-term survival and advancement. According to the respondents most of them said they share similar problem and face the same challenges. These respondents suggested that poverty is the main reason which makes them to migrate externally.

Poverty is deprivation and dispossession of wellbeing. Poverty is multi-dimensional issue and it is a major socio-economic problem of people living in the Addis Ababa. Many Ethiopians in the urban areas are also living in poverty. As the above respondent elaborates, Addis Ababa by focusing on the incidence of poverty and associated factors found that there is high level of chronic poverty in the urban areas. This scenario indicated that the incidence of urban poverty in Ethiopia is high with a head count showing that people's perception towards urban poverty. Poverty can be a cause for poor development and on the other hand low level of development substantiates poverty; reducing poverty and promoting growth. If many people are not benefited from growth and are living in poverty it will result in impatience and rejection of growth by the masses. Therefore, it is important to know how poverty and urban development are interlinked and perceived by people in Ethiopia.

➤ **Sub-theme 2.2:**

4.2.2.4. Political Factors

The politicization of ethnic identities has the potential to cause significant levels of conflict within states. Empirical evidence suggests that states undergoing a political transition from authoritarian rule to democracy are at greater risk of instability and internal conflict. Usually in this types of countries Lack of freedom of expression, assembly and association, harassment, detention, suspicious killings of activists, arbitrary arrests, torture and ill-treatment has led many Ethiopian migration. In socially diverse states the potential for conflict may be greater than in more homogenous or inclusive societies. The future level of migration from these countries is wholly dependent upon the longevity and severity of any conflict that could arise from social grievances.

Case 5

The last group of the respondent said they are afraid of the political instability within the country. These respondents said they are afraid to live due to racism that's evolving around this country. One ethnic group is more favored and getting more advantage than the other ethnic group putting pressure on the rest. Political freedoms are repressed in Ethiopia and one ethnic group is more favored, so people are afraid. One ethnic group is more likely favorable to be hired for a job than the others. They said contending ethnic and the incoherence of the state and ruling party have

contributed to the rise in ethnic based violence in Ethiopia. Lots of people are living in fear of the current condition in the country because using this social media they saw massive killing. One respondent asked me to state his sentence saying that

“am afraid of living in this country, every day I hear someone is dead because of his ethnicity on social media posting the dead person picture, what am going to tell my children when they ask me what does racism mean? How am going to teach my children that they have to be free from racism while the case is different in reality”. These respondents are tired of living without safety and security in their homeland, so they are looking for peaceful life elsewhere.

Case 6

The other respondent whom I interviewed, she stated the incident that happened to her and her family during the protest and riot which has happened to her neighborhood during this last six months. She gave me briefing about her story.

“One night after having dinner with my family we were just chatting when we heard a loud voice or a scream across the neighborhood. We were very shocked with the noise, which was coming from the neighbors, so we quickly went outside to see what was going on. When we head out of our house there were large crowd of people. They were carrying very big machetes and big sticks. They looked very scary and they were heading towards us with a violent look in their faces. Am telling you I have never seen anything like this in my entire life and I have never been so scared. Luckily, one of my neighbor’s brother works in a federal’s office and they already knew about this situation, I guess they have the information. So, at the same moment with truck full of FSR federals came. When they saw those mobs, they started to jump from the trucks just like a spring and they started to trigger their guns. One of the federal aimed the gun upward and started shooting up in the sky. Those barbaric peoples who looked like mobs disappeared instantly. When I first saw them, I thought nothing will stop them from killing us but when they heard the gun shot, they disappeared into thin air. It was a traumatic time for us, after that incident our neighbors gathered for a meeting for safety measurement just in case, they might pay us another visit.

Development economists have also documented that economic mobility and safety of homeland security are correlated. Unfortunately, the ruling party’s ethnic policy, which confines individuals within their own ethnic enclaves, is known to have political unrest in the country. The ethnic based

governance and political structure has limited the safety and economic opportunities of the citizens and the country's capability to absorb security for Ethiopian people. As Gray, Mueller and Woldehanna (2012) show, barriers within Ethiopia indeed exist, thereby prohibiting citizens from freely living within their regions, hence denying them the basic constitutional right of safety and security. Longstanding grievances over access to land and complex questions of identity and demarcation of internal borders on occasion led to abuses, including open conflict between ethnic groups, killings, and large-scale internal displacement.

The number of people internally displaced by conflict remained high; according to the International Organization for Migration, 1.6 million people were internally displaced as of July, 66.4 percent due to conflict. The Internal Displacement Monitoring Center reported that ethnic clashes in Oromia, Amhara, Somali, and SNNPR regions led to 522,000 new displacements in the first half of 2019. Between March and May, the government returned approximately 1.5 million internally displaced people to their home areas, many still unsafe, including by restricting delivery of humanitarian assistance and demolishing camps in areas of displacement. Those that returned often faced secondary displacement due to ongoing insecurity and a lack of humanitarian assistance in areas of return.

Political instability is another building block of the conceptual construct designed for this study. According to several past studies, political instability can be considered as a critical bottleneck for the innovation and overall economic development of many countries (Gayle et al., 2012; Hammed, 2018; Leydesdorff & Meyer, 2006; Varsakelis, 2006). Innovation prone political systems tend to be highly suitable for industrialization and strongly support institutional and technological advancement (Carlsson, 2006). Frequent occurrence of large-scale shocks and social unrest, civil war, and violence deters enterprises' innovativeness (Feng, 1997). In politically unstable countries, it can hardly be possible to attract foreign direct investments, which is the key for enterprises' innovativeness (Globerman & Shapiro, 2003). The frequent happening of political instability accompanied with massive corruption result into deep-rooted underdevelopment and poverty in Ethiopia (Hammed, 2018). Research findings consistently reveal that political instability deters countries from supporting fundamental innovative activities of their enterprises. It is evident that political instability harms the quality of scientific institutions and hampers enterprises' innovativeness. As noted by Gayle et al., political instability causes budget shortage

for development activities at national and enterprise levels, and weakens collaborations between academicians and practicing enterprises, lessens government spending on technology, and deteriorates quality of education.

4.3. Contribution of Diaspora Community on Out-Migration in Addis Ababa

In general terms, the contribution of diaspora community on out migration in Addis Ababa including for development of countries of origin and residence is both an individual and collective undertaking whose manifestations vary markedly among different groups. It is influenced largely by background factors such as the drivers of migration, experiences during migration, the status of migrants and the degree of integration in the country of residence. Transnational engagement and participation by diaspora organizations is embedded in practices and commitments most of which are observable in collective forms of organization. These practices and commitments spring from political opportunity structures that help diaspora to form collective organizations, mobilize their resources and participate in their countries of origin Addis Ababa. This entails assemblages of social materials such as knowledge, technology and practices, which come together within these transnational spaces. The country of origin depends on a wide variety of factors.

The most significant of these is the migrants' physical and psychological links to their ancestral homes (Addis Ababa) and their ability to return. The ability of diaspora to return and engage in Addis Ababa is influenced by contextual factors in both the country of origin and the country of residence. In the country of residence, Diasporas capitalize on their legal status, level of integration and symbolic repertoires that they encounter, including opportunities to move freely. Diasporas that seek to engage and participate in both the country of residence and the country of origin tend to capitalize on their legal status and the political opportunity structures in the country of residence, in order to undertake transnational activities mediating between 'here' and 'there'. This is because diaspora communities act as social fields that link together the country of residence and Addis Ababa. This linkage taps into the benefits of multiple identities and dual affinity, circular migration and the transnational transfer of resources (i.e. skills, culture, networks and opportunities) facilitated by out-migration. The status of individuals in a particular diaspora community whether conflict generated political or economic refugees and their attitude towards the home government, also play an important role in decisions to return and engage in the country of origin. These factors

significantly influence the people of Addis Ababa for out-migration when they see this amazing and successful of diaspora contribution for the development of the country.

4.3.1. THEME 3: Effects of External Migration

People leave home in search of a better life for themselves as well as for their families back home. As integral components for global development, migrants not just further the host country's economic prosperity but also promote technological growth. Today, developing countries are home to more than one-third of the migrants in the world. It also offers advantages to the host country. Take the economy, for example: while migrants send money home in the form of remittances, they spend it locally on housing, food, healthcare and leisure activities. Many people move overseas to improve their career prospects. Thanks to an effect known as the migration surplus they boost the host country's economy at the same time. How well migrants blend into the host country's labor force is directly proportional to their economic contribution to the growth of the nation. By expanding the workforce, migrants increase the level of output, which is one of the main drivers of economic growth. As migrants are not bound to a particular part of the host country, they are free to move and take up jobs wherever the need is greatest. By facilitating legal entry into the country, host nations can reap benefits from the economic growth of migration. Once a host country has identified the actual reason for migrant's shift, authorities can make positive changes in the system to expand the supply chain. These migrants also send money home in the form of inward remittances, which in turn stabilizes the economic scenario of their home country.

4.3.2. Sub-theme 2.1: Migrants choice of location of the country and why

Case 7

All the respondents replayed America or Canada. The first respondents who replayed said they want to migrate to America more specifically they mentioned there is a better opportunity and living condition there. They said if they migrate abroad, they are ready to work part time jobs and earn more money for their family. Even though it's not going to be easy working and living there, and they have to start from scratch to work from the lower jobs they are willing because beginning from that point they can reach to the top and full fill their dream. America is one of the countries where you can reach your goal or where you can make your dreams come true.

One participant said the following:

“I have always wanted to go to America, I know it’s not going to be easy for me to leave there. I also know I must start my life from clean slate. Even if I have to work from low class to two-part time jobs, I will be happy to do it rather than working here full time with low salary. I can work my way up starting from the bottom. My economic condition will improve, I will get a good salary better than I get paid here and send some dollar to support my family. America is where you can change your life, be anything you want to be and where you can fulfill your dream if you focus and work hard.

Ethiopian migrants who went to the United States were generally motivated by the economic and educational opportunities in the host country. Contrary to their expectations, many Ethiopian migrants who intended to escape the poverty of their homeland find themselves at first difficult to adopt well with the American society. After a while Ethiopians seemed at home with the society and took advantage of the social support network which they have established with American culture and made their dreams come true. Finally, sending them remittance to their family and helping them out with their economic condition.

Case 8

There is also better education abroad they stated. Most of them said they like to have scholarship and improve their educational level so that they can be more advantageous. In developed country’s skilled youth are considered as an architect of modern civilization. Since they can come up with new and fresh ideas, they can bring vast change in technical field and they are always ready to face obstacles and challenges.

Most of the participant said the following:

“Living in America has so many opportunities, you can be a business man, a professional football player, basketball player, famous singer, inventor or you can work anywhere where your ambition lies but here in our country opportunities are limited with education and education only. In America you can choose which ever field you are good at and you will succeed without a doubt. They saw People they knew before who went to America who have changed their lives completely which gives them the motivation to migrate externally”.

Some of the activities that Ethiopians were engaged into strengthen their sense of belongingness. Joining social and economic support groups modeled after the social structure in their native land like professional football players, singers and basketball players. Unusually, living in America options are not based on education only there are many options to make a living.

Case 9

The rest of the respondents replayed saying they want to migrate to Canada and stated their reasons. The respondents replayed by saying if you want to learn there at any level wheatear it is degree, masters or PhD they will be willing to teach you for free. One of them Pointed out her opinion: -

“One of my cousins went to Canada, education is free in that country. You can choose any department which you like and get education for free. After you finish your study you can get a job under your profession. They will not hire you if you don’t have the qualification for the job requirement, they are strict when hiring their employees under their profession and they hire you with a good salary she mentioned”.

The other participant mentioned similar reasons regarding choose of destination. He said

“Even if you have kids and you want to send them to elementary or high school, they will teach them for free. Your kids will go to school without worrying what to eat because they feed them their breakfast including their lunch. They take good care of them and give them good education”.

Scholarships offered by developed countries to students from developing countries were the focus of the analysis. Scholarships to students from all countries were also included since it wasn’t always possible to disaggregate. Scholarship targets by nationality and such programs may well include students from Ethiopia. Scholarships offered to individuals from developed countries only were excluded. An example of such a program would be the Fulbright Arctic initiative where one of the eligibility criteria is citizenship in Canada, or the United States. Certain scholarship programs offered by developing countries such as Ethiopia are included in the analyses if the scholarships are offered to citizens of other developing countries. Due to free scholarship in Canada many Ethiopians have attended Canadian higher education to acquire knowledge and skills that are needed in the labor market to secure jobs opportunities.

Due to the new legislation of Canada, migrants are free to work in the country, they said “they never ask you if you are their citizen nor will they ask you without our standard of education you will not be employed as professional. Wherever country you came from with your countries education level they will hire you anywhere starting from construction site to junior manager, accountant to office manager”. Job opportunity is open to everyone if they have educational background and qualification from their country.

They also provide free health care services. If you are injured or sick, they never ask you for health insurance because in other countries without health insurance you will never be treated. In Canada without health insurance they will give you treatment. They also said if you gave birth to a baby, they will give the maternity leave for a year with pay. Here in our country our government approval for maternity leave is only for three month and you have to get back to work during that specific period of time. one of the participants said

“I gave birth to my first born and I only have three months for my maternity leave. So, I took first two weeks before my birth because of the preparation for the delivery. After my delivery I was only left with two months and a half. It’s not fair to go back to work this early she said my child is too small to leave her behind. The government has to give us more time after birth just like Canada government does”.

Canadian federal government, through the unemployment insurance program, introduced limited 15 weeks of paid maternity leave in 1971 at 66% of a mother’s previous salary. It was only a short time later when unions began negotiating longer paid maternity leave with higher levels of benefits for their members that topped up the portion of salary paid by unemployment insurance benefits. Unions also began negotiating guarantees that women could return to the jobs they held before their maternity leave, paternity leave, and leave for parents who adopted children. The labor movement pushed for changes to make maternity leave more accessible, not only in legislation, but also by bargaining better paid maternity leave for its members. They didn’t stop at just maternity leave. As early as 1979, Quebec’s Common Front, representing government, education and health workers, negotiated 20 weeks of fully paid maternity, 10 weeks leave when parents adopted a child, and five days of paternity leave! In 1981 after a 42-day strike, the Canadian Union of Postal Workers won postal workers across Canada 17 weeks of paid maternity leave. The

concept of longer periods of paid maternity leave than was available through unemployment insurance benefits soon became mainstream and expanded across the country.

Unions didn't stop at maternity leave. Adoption leave, paternity leave, and parental leave – available to either parent – were routinely negotiated with employers. These days, we advocate for better access to quality and affordable childcare for all workers – so families can better balance their work and family lives. Access to childcare and early childhood education provides economic benefits to the country and help boost productivity. Today, all new parents have the right to take parental leave – paid time off work when a baby or child is born or first comes into their care (such as through adoption). Birth mothers who take pregnancy leave are entitled from 80 up to 95 weeks' leave. Birth mothers who do not take pregnancy leave and all other new parents are entitled to up to 63 weeks' parental leave.

4.3.3. THEME 2: Preference of skilled migrants with educational background

Case 7

Except for one respondent every respondent replayed yes which is very surprising. They said this country doesn't give enough credit to the educated and skilled individuals. Respondents stated people who are educated and who have skills have not been given opportunity that they deserve. Most of educated people don't even earn enough salary to support their family. They are well educated, and they also have skills, but nobody acknowledges their potential and gives them the chance that they deserve. While they could do so much if they have the chance. Now days most of the people who hired in a huge organization is through their relatives or with someone they know. In our country no body pays attention of the qualification this skilled youth has. People who are hired with relatives are less educated, but they have more salary than this skilled youth. One of the respondents replayed

“I have graduated my master's degree from Jemma University under the department of economics with good grade. I have best friend; we have stayed friends since we went to Adama University to graduate our first bachelor's degree. We stayed in contact through the years, since then we talk about our lives. He has a relative who works in United Nation, so he was hired in this organization due to his relation. My friend only has his first degree and his currently salary is 2000 dollars per month and when he works outside of the country, they will pay him per dime of 500 dollars. While

I have master and work in a small private limited company with 15,000 birr per month. Can you imagine how our lives are different? I feel like my education is waste of time and energy”.

However, skilled individuals have not been given enough attention for better chance of employment. Thus, these skilled labor turnovers have been predominantly focused on the individual (what makes someone quit or intend to quit), rather than on a consideration of what organizations can do to retain and better use skilled people. There are many things that skilled people can do to increase knowledgeable skill for the development of the country. They can contribute important high-performance work practices, such as working as a team, information-sharing and extensive training, in reducing levels of employee turnover.

Case 8

One of the participants explained her situation as this

“If I have my master or PhD why would I leave my country if I am this much educated. Using the skill, knowledge and equational background which I have I will find myself a good job with my skill and educational qualification. I will fight to be hired in a good company and earn a very good salary and live a better life for myself”. She said people should stay in their country if they have this much of qualification. Why waste this much of effort in someone else’s county if an organization hires them with a good salary.”

THEME 4:

The following respondents were asked if they would leave their country even if they were fully employed. Most of the respondents replayed yes. They said even if we are fully employed people our salary is not enough to support our family. They stated that as you know the economy in this country is under inflation. Every item on the market which are ready to be sold is very expensive. If you buy one item with a fair price this month then when you buy next month the price will be doubled. You will not gate the same item with the same price, every month the price will increase. They mentioned it is difficult for them to change their lives this way let alone to live their daily lives. Which makes them lose hope to give better life for their kids. One respondent replayed;

“I want to change my kid’s future because the way we are living now is very challenging. I am a single mom and am living in a very difficult situation. As you can see the way we live is in bad condition. We are living in slum house, we don’t have any shower; we are sharing toilet with our neighbors and the toilet has a hole and my kids are under the age of 3 and 6, it’s hard for my six-year-old to use hole when she wants to use toilet. I have a salary of 8000 birr but it’s not enough to support my family. My kids need a lot of things, since they are infants, they need good food for their growth, they need warm clothing’s, and school fee for their education. I have to pay house rent which takes half of my salary and with this salary it’s enough to support them and provide them what they fully need.”

The problems of low income, inflation and poverty in the country persisted infinitively is bleeding the urban Ethiopian community. Sen (1979) indicates that the neglect of non-utility information makes welfares too restrictive. The non-welfares approach answers to this criticism by concentrating on the satisfaction of basic needs deemed necessary for a good standard of living. Thus, the identification of specific forms of commodity deprivation (both absolute and relative) becomes central, and the well-being of individual’s is assessed by such measures as income, nutrition and health. Usually well-being depends on what kind of life a person is living, and what he/she is succeeding in ‘doing’ or ‘being’. Thus, well-being is seen from the perspectives of ‘functioning’s’ and ‘capabilities. ‘Functioning’ is an achievement and ‘capability’ is the ability to achieve. ‘Functioning’ is related to the state of existence of a person such as whether a person is well-nourished, clothed, educated or participates in society without shame. Capability, on the other hand, has to do with an individual’s freedom in the choice of their life and ‘functioning’s’. It follows that a poor person may be considered as one with low capabilities. Despite the different conceptions of poverty and well-being highlighted above, most exclusively satisfaction is considered of material needs by defining a basket of goods necessary to sustain a minimum standard of living. As a result, income and consumption expenditure have been the preferred and most widely used measures of well-being.

4.3.4. Role of external migration

As we have seen on the above replay of the participants, we can see that how the role of external migration is affecting the lives of Addis Ababa people. Data collected from the sources indicated that, the community still has high regard about the importance of the role of external migration.

The social and economic life of the people has a huge impact for this role. This society has low living standard and has poor economic condition. This shows that failure of the country's economy cannot provide a decent living condition. In the day to day of human life, it is highly likely that people would compare their socio-economic status with other in their neighborhoods and communities. It might be the result of globalization. The need to pursue the western lifestyle makes people want to migrate. This new generation has become a village through globalization. There is a dynamic change in the sphere of society, in the present situation of the world and the advancement in technology and advent of internet this secluded comparison has taken a world stance.

Today people have possibility to investigate what is happening in the world and the place they have in global community. This comparison has been leading the society to search for a better life. In addition, the present of social networks at the host countries that disseminate information, accurate or not, using the technologies and other means to their friends and relatives. It might also be cited to be a springboard for the causes of migration from Addis Ababa. Most recently the theory of migration networks has tended to dominate in critical thinking about migration. The relation between migrants and their friends/relatives at home act as an information network. This also builds social capital and facilitates further migration. The crucial role played by social networks as the facilitators of migration has been well established in migration theory (Massey et al.1993). They have been conceptualized as the ties that link potential migrants in the place of origin to current or previous migrants in the destination countries (Curran and Rivero-Fuentes, 2003). Important feedback mechanism is generated within these networks in the form of information, resources and support that reduce the cost and risks of migration, there by contributing to facilitate it. One of the participants said

“I use social medial often and through that social media I see my friend's pictures post and the way they live, where they work and where they relax abroad. When I compare my life with my friends, I see the picture of my life and theirs which lead me to think how our life standard is different. I definitely want to migrate abroad and end up where my friends have reached”.

Through these feedback mechanisms, are generated within this network in the form of information, resources and support that reduce the cost and risk of migration. There by contributing to facilitate it. This is through the social mechanisms they define as a social facilitation or social learning that

network peers it might be family; friends or communities provides useful information or assistance with migration or increase the benefit that might be expected from it.

4.3.5. How the participants feel and their concerns

Though some of the participants live with their family (case one, three, and four) they rather prefer to be independent. The participant I have interviewed noted that they don't want to live with their family but since they have poor economic condition they are stuck with their families. However, they still do feel unease living with their family members especially with their parents, due to this fact they preferred to live as adulthood roles abroad like supporting their family members and themselves. Almost all of the participant whom I interviewed have either family member's relatives or friends in America or Canada. When friends/peers, family members and even strangers migrate, the participants consider themselves as they are one step behind compared to their friends. They weigh themselves against these people who live in this country and feel inferior. The fancy cloths their friends or relatives wear on their face book page or when they come back to visit their family members. They are highly valued, and they are talked about around their neighborhood. This kind of situations makes them feel intimidated and makes them think it is because they are below than those who live abroad. Case one also added the following:

“Most of my friends are living in different parts of United States. When we were in high school and university most of my friends went to this country. Now days, when I use my face book page, I see their pictures. As for my friends they are very successful now. One of my best friends when I was in high school became a successful chief executive editor for the New York Times post. When I see my friends this successful and they are achieving their dreams I feel like I am sitting idle here and doing nothing with my life. These respondents blame and consider themselves as inferior than those who decided to migrate and appreciate the guts of others who do it and succeed.

Economic opportunity

Ethiopia is rated the poorest and most heavily indebted countries of the world, ranked last out of 208 countries (World Bank 2004). Recent United Nations children's fund (UNICEF) report indicated that 26% of the population of the country, most women and rural residents, are living in less than \$1.00 per day. About 35 million of Ethiopia people live below the defined poverty datum line of \$0.45 per day. Income per capital is also one of the lowest in the world at around \$1.00.

Ethiopia has also experienced over three decades of civil war from 1960 to early 1990's that resulted in massive social and economic crisis (World Bank 2014).

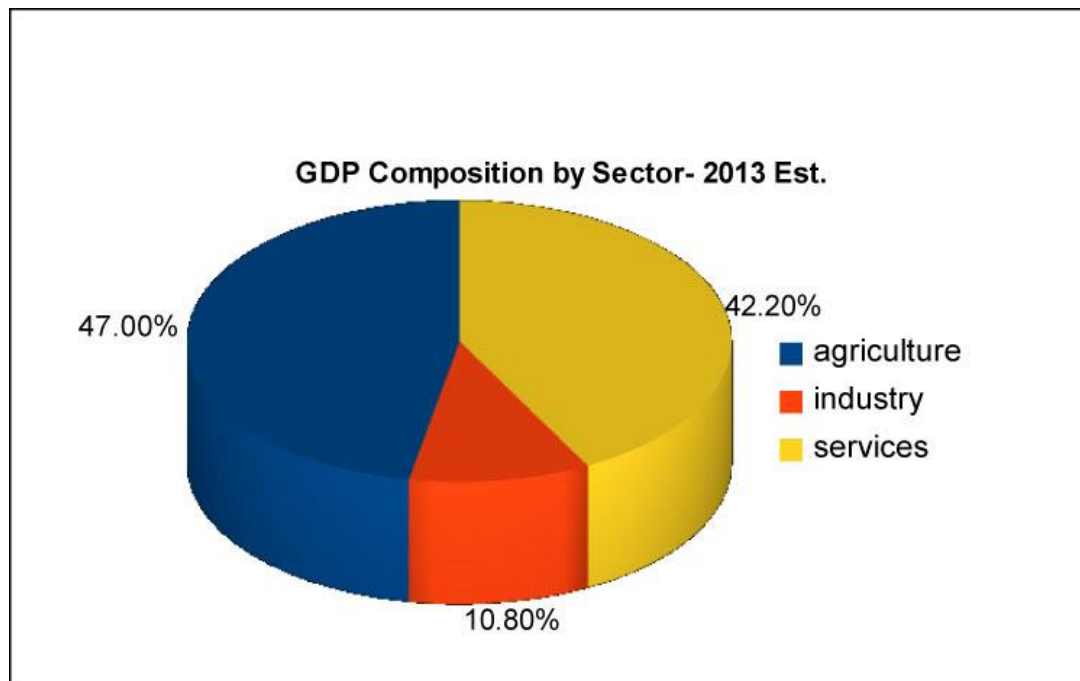
Reading the transcribed data, the issue of economic problem was a theme that recurs again and again. Almost all of the individuals which I interviewed pointed out as factor for their migration is financial problems or the lack of economic resources in their families and their lives makes them decide to externally migrate. What I also observed during my interview is that, the participant lives in rental houses, some of them live in condominium houses, some of them live in service and some of them live in slum houses. There is lack of pure water to drink, poor sanitation, unhygienic living conditions and some of the family members even share one room for three to five people for sleeping. Most of the participant as they describe live in a poor living conditions, unemployment, low salary and uncertainty of political instability pushes people out. Economic inflation is getting higher by the day, every item in the store, groceries, boutiques, food items are getting expensive. Every month the price rises on these items for people to afford it to buy. Which makes it even harder for people to live with their low salary to support themselves and their family. "One of the participants stated;

"My family are very poor, and I am the only one who is working and providing for my family. It is hard for me to support them with my small salary. You cannot imagine how it feels like living this way. Every month I have to spend money for my family's expense. By the end of the month, I remain empty handed with no money. I have been working for the last eight years in my career, but I did not save any money for my future. Rather than living in these conditions, I would rather prefer to migrate externally and work as a waiter there."

While the existing poverty in the country is pushing people out, the perception of better economic opportunity in America and Canada is trying to pull almost all of them out.

Migration of Ethiopians to other parts of the world is expected to continue in the future because of the existing political instability, development, and limited employment opportunities. Lundius, et al., (2008) poverty that forced urban residents to migrate still exists in their places of origin and continues to influence their lives and prospects of migration.

4.1 Table – World finance report



Source: world finance report

Inflation in Ethiopia

In 2005, inflation began to rise in Ethiopia. The inflation rate steadily increased from 3.4% in 2004 to 13.6%, in 2006, a record rose in 44.9% in 2008, increased in 33% in 2011 and 21.7% in 2012 (country profile, 2013). In July 2008, food prices in Ethiopia have rose to unprecedented level, on average 92% higher than twelve months earlier. It faces the highest rate of inflation in its history and the highest rate in the world next to Zimbabwe in 2008. The price of the main staple food maize in 2008 was 130% higher than the 2004-2008 average (Famine Early Warning Networks, 2009).

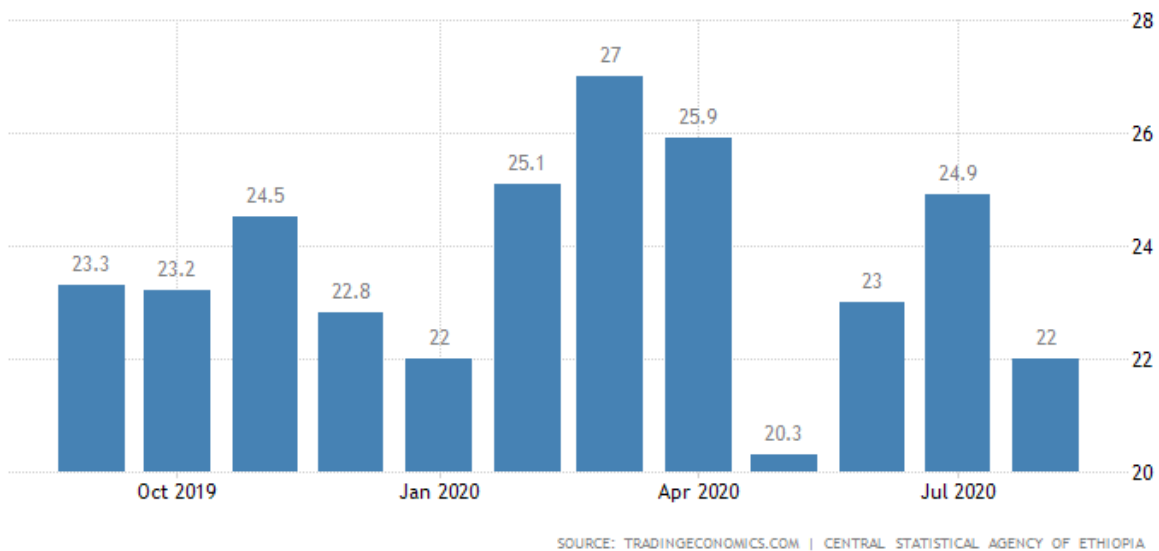
One of the participants indicated the situation as follows: -

“Every month I go to the market to buy food items for my family and me. Whenever I go to buy these foodstuffs in the market every month the price of the item’s rises. Let’s just say for instance

Before two months ago I went to the market to buy onion, per kilo it was 27-birr, last month I went to the market to buy the same onion with the same kilo it has reached to 29 birr, last week I bought the onion for 33 birr per kilo. Every month the price changes, you can never predict what’s going to happen next month, it’s very hard to keep up with inflation of food price in this country”.

The price of cereals also increased by 113% while that of spices rose by 102% but the price of the meat increased by 48% which is intensively consumed by richer families (IMF 2008). Also, the international price of wheat became more than tripled between 2002 and March 2008 (CSA 2014). Following inflation in international food price, inflation continued to increase after 2005 in Ethiopia as well, despite good weather and agricultural production boom which according to official figures exhibited 13% growth rate over the period 2004-2008. Ethiopian government responded in 2006 to the rising of food subsidies, social safety nets for food insurance household, price controls, fiscal measures, such as adjustment in tariffs, the release of grains form the strategic reserve, media campaign, and export bans on food products. Inflation decline from 2009 until late 2010 and inflation then rose again. In 2011 inflation peaked at over 40% in Ethiopia (IMF 2015). Monetary expansion seems to be the main drives of this high inflation in Ethiopia.

Figure 4.2. Annual inflation of food trend

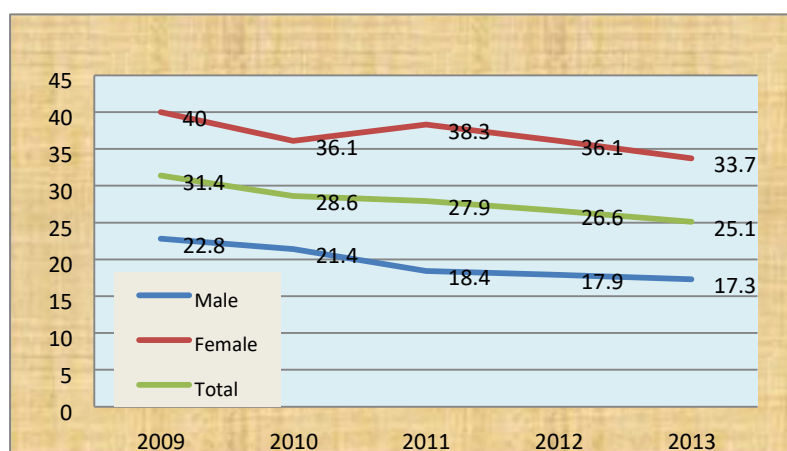


Source: Tradingeconomics.com 2020

✚ Unemployment trend in Addis Ababa

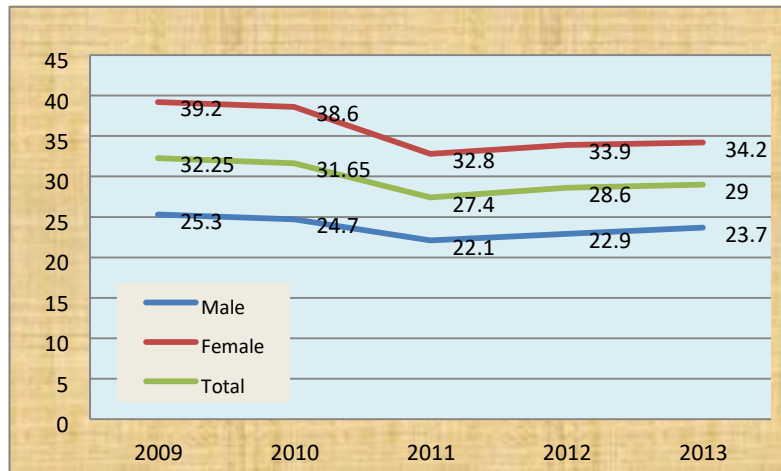
Unemployment is the major social problem in urban Ethiopia. In Addis Ababa rural- urban migration exacerbated the situation (MOFED, 2012: 47). The national labor force survey data from 2013 shows that unemployment in Addis Ababa is (25.1) is much higher than average urban unemployment rates (16.5) of the country (CSA 2013:4). Generally speaking, as depicted by the following graph unemployment rates in the last five years in the city have been declined for both sexes. However, when we look at youth unemployment trends it was somehow declined between 2009 and 2011. But from 2011 onwards it has started slightly rising. The reason for the rise of youth unemployment rates can be the prevailing of excess graduates from colleges and universities. For instance, the number of graduates that joined the labor market has risen from about 55,000 in 2009 to above 79,000 in 2013 (MoE 2013:14) with annual rates of growth of 9.4.

Figure 4.1 Trends of general unemployment in Addis



Source: Compiled from CSA 2010, 2011, 2012 and Addis Ababa MoFED 2013 abstract

Figure 2 Trends of youth unemployment in Addis



Source: Compiled from CSA 2010, 2011, 2012 and Addis Ababa MoFED 2013 abstract

Generally, in the last five years (2009 to 2013) as indicated in the figures above while the unemployment rate in the city has declined by 6.3%, the youth unemployment rate has dropped only by half (3.3%) of the general unemployment trend in Addis Ababa. Unemployment rates for females were much higher than males in the last five years.

✚ Political Instability

The ILO (2006) report state that millions of women and men leave their homes and cross-national borders in search of greater security for themselves and their families and it is seen as courageous expression to overcome adversity. Migration in Ethiopia is and has historically been characterized by complex flows arising from combinations of various root causes (Kainth, 2009; Fransen & Kuschminder). Among those root causes political instability, political repression and poor governance are found to push millions of peoples to leave their places of origins. As Regt (2007) states Ethiopia which is known for its political instability and poverty was highly susceptible for the flight of its people combined with the economic condition.

Political instability of the 1970s and the large refugee flows of the 1980s are mentioned as the main factors for the existence of Ethiopian Diaspora in different parts of the world (Shaw, 2007; Amira, 2009; Fransen & Kuschminder, 2009). In line with this, Jureidini, (2010) in his survey on Somalis and Ethiopian immigrants found out that the main reason for most Ethiopians to leave

their country across Somalia, Yemen, the Middle East and the Gulf into Europe was insecurity (most frequent reason for leaving home) and the aftermath of political turmoil. Adamnesh (2006) also found out that political instability and life insecurity push most Ethiopians to go and live abroad. Another study conducted on Ethiopian immigrants²² states that the reason why Ethiopian migrants do not want to go back to their home country is mainly because of the ever-increasing political problems in the country (Wondwosen, Jerusalem, Seidler & Hanna, 2006). Generally, political instability in different parts of the world has been raised as one factor for the increment of immigration.

The Ethiopian government is looking increasingly unstable, and the security environment in Ethiopia is looking more dangerous. Opposition protests over the past two years have been larger and more frequent than any in Ethiopia since the end of the civil war. The ethnic nature of these protest movements means that a mutiny within the police or security forces is more likely than in recent years. The government has blamed the protests on ‘people with terror links’ and overseas activists who they claim are trying to destabilize the country. This approach has in some cases, exacerbated the risk of protests. Earlier this year, government heavy-handedness in response to protests in the country prompted other groups to join the demonstrations. So far, the various recent protest movements appear to have remained organizationally distinct. But they do seem to have become less single-issue oriented and converged on a more broadly anti-government stance.

Despite this risk, there are anticipation that the Ethiopian government will use more forceful tactics to suppress the protests, particularly if they continue to spread, grow and intensify. The use of heavy-handed tactics by the security forces is already commonplace. Human Rights Watch claims that more than 400 people have been killed at demonstrations by the security forces since late 2015. This response suggests that there is a high level of concern in government about the effect the protests will have on its stability.

4.4. Contribution of Out-migration on Socio-economic Development of Addis Ababa

Actually, it is difficult to gather information from Diasporas community through this covid-19 pandemic. Before this pandemic the researcher was hoping to interview Diasporas from 5 to 7 individuals but during this pandemic, they all left to their countries and the researcher remained

with only two people. Therefore, I used my other option to gather information through secondary data through book reviews.

There is no official record of the size of the Ethiopian Diasporas, though commonly cited government estimation and figures indicates that between one and two million Ethiopians are living abroad with large populations in the Middle East, North America and Europe (Kuschminder, 2010:7). Since the mid-1990s more than 50,000 Ethiopians also reached the United States through the Diversity Visa lottery (DV) program (Easter and et al 2010 at [www. Ethiopiandiaspora.com](http://www.Ethiopiandiaspora.com) accessed 27/08/2016). These days, most countries in the world have recognized the important role that their respective Diasporas could play in economic growth and development. In Africa and Europe, for example, the roles of migrants and Diasporas in development processes have been increasingly highlighted. This include transfer to their country of origin- especially through remittances-financial support for development projects, the formation of Diasporas led development organizations and direct personal involvement of diasporas members in development initiatives. Diaspora is also a source of investment.

The Diaspora, if recognized as an asset could invest huge capital in the home country. While these individuals live abroad for a long period of time, they have a potential to accumulate capital to be invested returning back to their home country. Attractive government policies that encourage the Diaspora to invest are of course, the pre-requisite. Bureaucratic bottlenecks and long procedures are important factors to be considered to facilitate investment (Shinn, 2002:14). According to the 2009/10 report of Ethiopian Investment Agency (EIA), more than 4.12 billion birr has been invested in various projects by Ethiopians in the Diaspora in the last six years (EIA, 2011). The Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MoFA) also reported that 640 Ethiopians Diasporas have been engaged in Agriculture, construction, health, education and development activities in the last six years (MoFA,2011). The Ethiopian Diasporas can and should be important partners in the country's development process. They are numerous and many of them are highly skilled. There are many possible advantages that could be gained by engaging the Diasporas in the country's development.

National Bank of Ethiopia (NBE), created accounts especially for targeting members of the Ethiopian diaspora to invest domestically and enacted a directive no. FXD/31/2006 by National Bank of Ethiopia which created a foreign currency account that non-resident Ethiopians and non-

resident foreign national of Ethiopians origin (and their reactive business) could open. These accounts are dominated in three currencies the US dollars, British pound, or euro but banks can also accept deposits in other convertible currencies, including the Canadian dollar, Saudi riyal, Japanese yen, Australian dollar, and United Arab Emirates (UAE) dirham. Those residing abroad can open accounts either in person or by post. The minimum amount required to open an account is \$5,000 or its equivalent in any of the acceptance currencies, and the maximum deposit amount is \$5,000. Among other things, holders of these accounts can use them as collateral or a guarantee for loans or bids and to make local payments in birr. According to the directive, interest is not paid to non-residents foreign currency current accounts, but banks have the freedom to set their own interest rates for non-resident foreign currency fixed accounts. This is a good start, but quite small number of Diaspora invested in this account. They have been investing more than this if the issue of the Diaspora were handled properly through positive national policy formulation is accompanied like the Indian and Chinese government did. Although the Ethiopian Diaspora is divided because of the traumatic experiences many of its member have under gone and unable to come together to form a united front for constructive development purposes, they are among the most successful of the African Diasporas in Western countries (Lyons, 2009).

Ethiopia issued the millennium corporate bond in 2008 to raise capital for the state-owned Ethiopia electric power corporation (EEP). The World Bank is advising a number of countries, such as Kenya, Ethiopia, Nigeria and the Philippines, on the issuance of the diaspora bonds. Despite the movement in credit ratings among a number of developing and emerging economies, government must still face the challenge of convincing members of their diaspora to purchase the government bonds. It is particularly difficult to get individuals who have fled countries due to oppressive government to invest in their countries of origin. Ethiopia for example, has failed to raise enough money through its issuance of diaspora bonds.

In 2011 Ethiopia launched Second diaspora bond, the renaissance dam bond, to fund the construction of the great Grand Ethiopian renaissance dam, designed to be Africa's largest hydroelectric power plant. The issuance of its second diaspora bond, which to raise \$4.8 billion, follows on its initial effort to raise money for EEP through its millennium corporate bond. However, the first bond did not reach its financial targets due to risk perceptions among investors with respect to EEP, the government, and the political environment in Ethiopia. The renaissance

dam bond is available in minimum denominations of \$50 and transferable to up to three people. Buyers are given the option to purchasing bonds with a five-year or a five –year or a five-to- ten-year maturity as well choosing between bonds with or without interest. Bonds issued in the local birr currency are available in five-year and over-five-year maturities. Five-year bonds have a 5.5 percent yield while over-five-years bonds yield 6 percent interest. Moreover, the government is covering any remittance fees associated with the purchase of these bonds. The bonds are available in foreign currencies as well as in the local birr. The commercial bank of Ethiopia (through its branches), the Ethiopian embassies and consulates, and other representative offices are responsible for selling the bonds in foreign currencies. It remains to be seen how the diaspora bond fares, but this does not change the fact that it is an innovative mechanism for diverting investment toward public social service and infrastructures projects.

Moreover, Diaspora can transfer of knowledge and technology to home country. For transfer of knowledge and technology, government initiative to form linkages with groups of Diasporas working in academic and research institutes and scientific fields are crucial. Individuals will most likely agree to use their sabbatical leaves and spare times to help their country without necessary returning home or in short term visits. This is a double blessing to the country since they best know the country’s situation and their relative cooperation to work in low pays than foreign expertise. But, little or no participation of Ethiopian Diaspora in technology and knowledge transfer.

4.5. Ethiopian Diasporas Interest in Contributing to Development of Addis Ababa

According to International Organization of migration report Ethiopia diaspora now days shows a very high interest in contributing to their home country. Participants were asked what type of support they would be interested in contributing and in what sector. In terms of interest by industry, most of the college educated and working-class professionals displayed an interest in agriculture. Many agreed that industries in Ethiopia such as the coffee industry, flaxseed industry, and fruits and vegetable farming were all areas they are interested in getting involved in. Many of them mentioned that many Ethiopian Americans have invested in these industries and have been successful.

There was also interest in engaging in real estate. Many diaspora members discussed that they already own property in Ethiopia and will continue to buy more property. In addition to real estate, these individuals suggested that they were interested in education and healthcare.

In terms of education, a diaspora member who is a university professor advised that his university is involved in a book program where surplus books on technology, science and finance are shipped to universities in Ethiopia. The last shipment contained over 150,000 books. He would like to see more of these types of partnership programs where universities in Ethiopia partner with leading universities around the world.

Another diaspora member suggested that technology is an area where diaspora members can play a role and suggested Enterprise Resource Planning Tools can be developed and shared with universities in Ethiopia. He is currently working on a project with Addis Abba University. These types of tools would allow more efficient production as a whole.

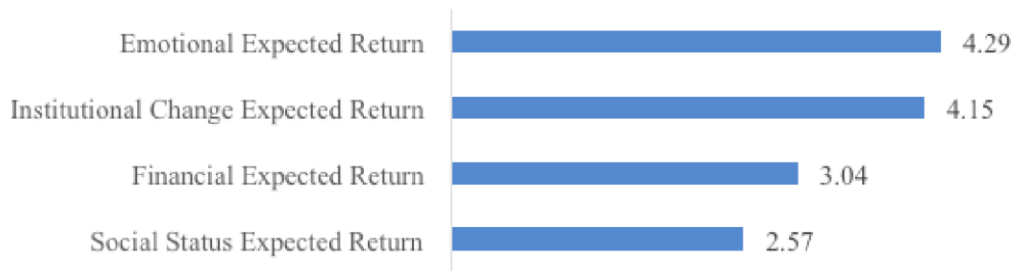
In terms of interest by region, rather than being interested in certain regions, most of the members of this group suggested that they were interested in the development of Ethiopia as a whole. Many suggested that they did not want to see certain ethnic regions grow faster than others. However, some individuals stated that they would be interested in engaging in rural cities.

4.5.1. Motivational Type by Interest

According to IOM report Diasporas invest in Ethiopia for several reasons, including emotional, financial, and social-status motivations. The survey was designed to identify which diaspora motivation dimensions are relatively more prominent to the Ethiopian diaspora community (1=strongly disagree; 7=strongly agree). Among the four dimensions, Institutional Change expected returns and Emotional expected returns has the highest score (mean of 4.29 and 4.15). The Ethiopian diaspora wants to invest in Ethiopia because they want to make a social impact and feel proud and accomplished when doing so.

Financial (mean of 3.04) and Social Status expected returns (mean of 2.57) comprise a second tier of diaspora investment motivations. These returns are considered much less important when considering investing to their country of origin compared to Institutional Change expected returns and Emotional expected returns.

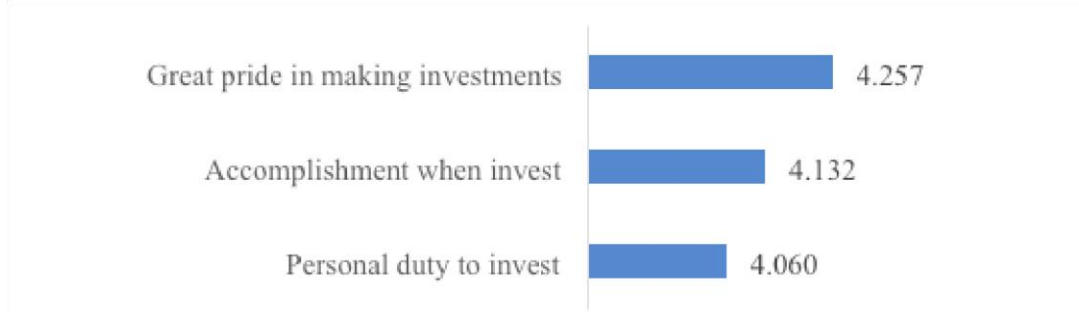
Figure 4.5.1. a Interest by Motivation Type



Source IOM Survey Results – Diaspora Investment Motivations, Institutional Change Expected Returns by Item

To identify potential institutional change motivations for diaspora investment, the survey asks Ethiopians about their desire to make a social impact. The result shows very high agreement (4.29) in the importance of this motivation.

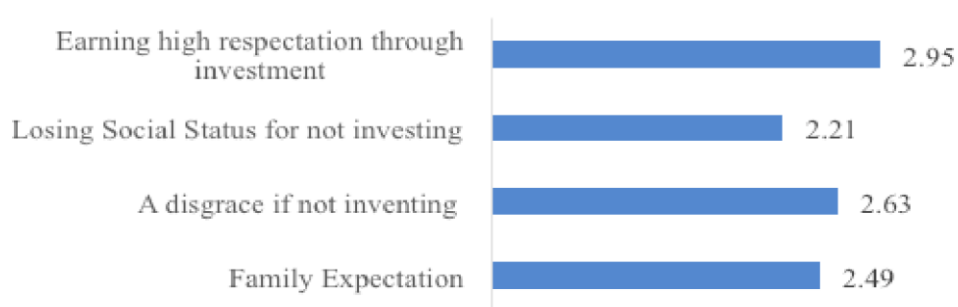
Figure 4.5.1. b Exhibit 12. Emotional Expected Returns



IOM Survey Results – Diaspora Investment Motivations, Emotional Expected Returns by Item

Financial motivations, such as an expectation that diaspora could gain personal financial independence (3.32) and profitability (2.76) through investment received very low to moderate levels of agreement among survey respondent.

Figure 4.5.1. c Exhibit 14. Social Status Expected Returns



IOM Survey Results – Diaspora Investment Motivations, Social Status Expected Returns by Item

4.5.2. Interest by Industry

When asked which industries they found most attractive for investment in Ethiopia, Education industry received the highest mean attractiveness score (mean = 5.9) (See Figure below). Information and communication technology and Healthcare sector also received strong attractiveness scores (means = 5.6). Tourism and Hospitality, Sanitation/water (mean = 5.4) and Energy (mean = 5.2) were also strong mentions. The mining sector received relatively less diaspora enthusiasm for investment (mean = 4.4).

Industry	Mean (Standard Deviation)
Education	5.93
Information and communication technology	5.57
Healthcare	5.55
Tourism and Hospitality	5.40
Sanitation/water	5.36
Energy	5.23
Manufacturing and assembly	5.13
Financial Services	4.97
Construction/infrastructure	4.90

Agriculture/fisheries/livestock	4.86
Industrial Parks	4.81
Textiles and Garments	4.74
Leather Shoes and Leather Products	4.48
Horticulture	4.41
Mining	4.38

Table 4.4.3. Investment interest by industry

*Scale 1-7; 1=Not Attractive at All; 7=Extremely Attractive

4.5.3. Interest by Region

To measure how important Region as a factor when thinking about contributing/investing in Ethiopia, the survey asked respondents to rank 1-7, as 1 = Extremely Unimportant and 7 = Extremely Important. The mean score of the respondents is 4.3, suggesting region is not important when investing.

When asked what region/s they would choose to invest/contribute in, 169 respondents advised that Addis Ababa, the capital of Ethiopia (18 occurrences) is the first choice, the second choice is Amhara region.

4.5.4. PERCEIVED OBSTACLES TO ENGAGEMENT

The list of diaspora-perceived major obstacles to engagement was varied with 27 different possible obstacles to diaspora investment in Ethiopia (e.g., issues related to government, infrastructure, property rights, finance, and human capital) presented on the survey; 13 received a mean score of a 4.0 or greater on a seven-point scale (1=Not an obstacle; 7= Extremely Important obstacle). Most of the government-related issues included on the survey were rated 4.0 or greater, including lack of government accountability (4.47), fraud or corruption (4.40), unpredictable future government policies (4.38), taxes on imported products (4.24), difficulty in getting the attention of government officials (4.23), unclear import/export procedures (4.23), political instability (4.18), long time to import goods (4.16), communication between government and diaspora leadership (4.13), long

procedure for registering a business (4.11), and Regulation on transferring capital in and out of Ethiopia (3.99). The obstacle of personal Safety and security concerns (3.56) and the inability for non-resident Ethiopians to vote (3.00) were perceived to be relatively less significant for diaspora compared to the other government-related issues (See Exhibit 17). This was also confirmed during interviews with diaspora members. As an example, a diaspora member advised that 2 years ago she moved back to Ethiopia as she wanted to invest and make a difference but unfortunately after trying for several months she gave up and moved back to the US. Lack of information and lack of support at government offices were the main contributors.

Figure 4.5.4 a Government-Related obstacles



*IOM Scale 1-7; 1= Not an obstacle; 7=Extremely Important Obstacle

Six issues related to financial issues received a mean score from 3.59 to 3.94, including lack of information on the Ethiopia financial sector (3.94), difficulty in transporting funds outside of Ethiopia (3.84), lack of investment incentives (3.82), unclear accounting and auditing framework (6.62), transporting funds within Ethiopia (3.50), and personal financial constraints (3.49). (See Exhibit 18).

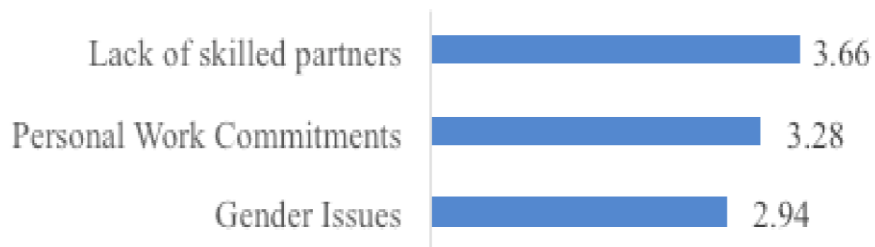
Figure 4.5.4. b Financial Obstacles



*IOM Scale 1-7; 1= Not an obstacle; 7=Extremely Important Obstacle

The human capital issues are generally considered not as difficult to deal with compared to other issues, including lack of skilled partners (3.66), personal work commitments (3.28), and gender issues (2.94). (See Exhibit 2).

Figure 4.5.4.c Human Capital Obstacles

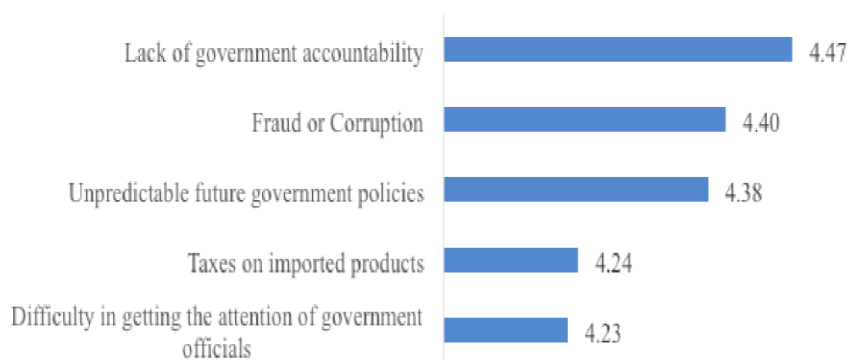


*IOM Scale 1-7; 1= Not an obstacle; 7=Extremely Important Obstacle

All top-five greatest diaspora-perceived obstacles to investment in Ethiopia (in order of importance) are Lack of government accountability, fraud or corruption, unpredictable future government policies, taxes on imported products, and difficulty in getting the attention of

Government officials (see Exhibit 21). This result indicates the most important concern when investment to their country of origin is the poor performance and credit of Ethiopian government.

Figure 4.5.4.d Top 5 perceived Obstacles



*IOM Scale 1-7; 1= Not an obstacle; 7=Extremely Important Obstacle

Between 1994 and 2008, a total of 1,804 Ethiopians living abroad were issued investment licenses by the Ethiopian Investment Agency. Of these, 37% were residents/citizens of the United States, 17% were from Canada and the remainder originated from the rest of the world. Main investment target areas included construction machinery lease and real estate development, food processing and manufacturing, agricultural production, hospitality services, schools, health services, and information technology. Most investments tended to be small family-owned businesses, a reflection of the limited capital investments of the diaspora. The share of diaspora investment relative to domestic private investment and foreign direct investment is low. Based on data from the Ethiopian Investment Agency, for the country as a whole, diaspora investment has only averaged 3% of total investments, while in Addis Ababa, where most diaspora investment tends to be concentrated, it has accounted for about 10% of total investments. Diaspora investment rose after 2001, when the main financial incentives were put in place by the Ethiopian government. However, since then, it has evidenced substantial fluctuations.

During the period 1994–2008, diaspora investment was overwhelmingly concentrated in construction machinery leases and real estate development (68%), while the manufacturing sector was a distant second, accounting for 12% of capital invested. Investments in the real estate sector were largely driven by the government’s policy to provide returnees with urban land at nominal

rates. Approximately 2.7 million square meters of land was sold to developers at a negotiated price that was often below fair.

Table 1 Capital investments of approved projects by source (in million US\$)

Fiscal year (September to August)	Domestic investment	Diaspora investment	Foreign investment	Total
1999/2000	828	68	200	1,090
2000/2001	682	76	351	1,090
2001/2002	716	139	173	1,028
2002/2003	1,091	115	393	1,599
2003/2004	1,413	161	836	2,410
2004/2005	2,262	82	1,781	4,125
2005/2006	4,813	213	2,298	7,324
2006/2007	5,302	809	5,339	11,450
2007/2008	8,424	103	9,979	18,505
Cumulative	25,530	1,768	21,348	48,646

Source: Ethiopian Investment Agency, Addis Ababa

The amount of capital was converted from Birr to US\$ by using National Bank of Ethiopia's yearly average marginal exchange rate of Birr to US\$. The amount of capital is based on EIA's stated amount of each investment license issued. It does not reflect the actual flow of capital

Table 2 Investments by the diaspora in major sectors

Sector	Capital invested In million \$US	% of capital invested	total projects	% of total projects
Real estate- related activities	1,268	68	1,059	59
Manufacturing Hotels and restaurants	226	12	326	18
Construction	61	3	76	4
Health/social work	48	3	70	4
Education	45	2	62	3
Agriculture	44	2	62	3

Source: Ethiopian Investment Agency, Addis Ababa.

Amount of capital computed using weighted average marginal exchange rate of Birr to US\$ from (1998/1999 to 2007/2008). Value market price, while some 400 real estate developers were licensed in Addis Ababa alone.

During this same time period, 78% of Ethiopian diaspora investors from the United States received licenses for leasing construction machinery; an activity related to the rise in real estate ventures and associated construction. The government provided easy access to finance for construction machinery, initially requiring 30% as equity and allowing 70% of the capital to be on loan. This practice has now been stopped. As the government's policy of providing land at below market price proved to be unsustainable, it too was discontinued. Hence, the sector in which diaspora investment takes place is likely to change.

4.6. Contribution of the diaspora community on migrant's migration decision

The role of migrants and Diasporas in society can be an important factor for development in both country of origin and host country. They create diverse societies that can be dynamic, innovative and open to global trade, investment, skills and knowledge. Given their familiarity with the host country and country of origin, they can act as facilitators, middle persons and cost savers for both. For the country of origin, they can open doors to global labor markets, trade, business, cultural exchange and diplomacy, and often bring home new ideas, skills and financial assets. For the host country, they can strengthen trust between different cultures, values, beliefs and political systems on which to build business, trade, and cultural and diplomatic partnerships. For the private sector, they can gain access to new markets, establish new offices, access requisite skills and conduct business across borders. Diasporas create their own networks and transnational communities at the familial, social, business and trade levels. Diasporas help penetrate foreign markets and create reliable employer-employee relations across borders. They make it possible for national and international companies to hire employees with the right language and cultural skills and save the cost of training new personnel. Governments demonstrated a wide array of initiatives to incentivize and support diaspora networking, particularly in the context of returning to and/or investing in their countries of origin. These range from business events and fairs in the origin or host countries, to scholarships for diaspora children, marketplaces to compete for development project funding, training tools for small and medium enterprises (SMEs), matching grants for community development investments, diaspora skills and job banks, web portals and other IT support tools.

Innovative technologies and social media have played a key role in bridging distances and changing diaspora relations with their home countries. While low budget travel enables people today to move faster, more frequently and in many directions, the Internet and social media with their real-time connectivity have spawned a large and growing number of online or electronic diaspora networks that have changed the nature of migration and mobility. Enterprising Diasporas can contribute their knowledge, experience and skills to the development of the country or community of origin without actually returning home. Temporary contract workers can stay abroad longer yet remain in close contact with their families.

Remittance is one of the methods transferring money from destination to home countries. The \$575 billion in global remittances transferred by international migrants to their families in 2016 of which \$429 billion were remitted to developing countries are one of the most tangible economic contributions of migrants to achieving the sustainable development goals in their country of origin. Remittances have the potential to elevate people out of poverty and address their development needs. More than three times larger than official development assistance (ODA), and more stable than other forms of private capital flows, remittances have lifted millions of families out of Poverty, contributing to the improvement of food security, education, health, well-being and housing for individual families. Over the last decade, the scope and impact of remittances on countries of origin of migrants have been significant, but they should not be viewed as a substitute for official development aid.

Remittances on their own will not result in development if the conditions for those sending and those receiving remittances are not conducive to development. Financial inclusion of largely excluded populations through financial education and the provision of financial services at affordable costs facilitate the investment of remittances into productive activities, thus benefiting sustainable development in the communities of remittance recipients. Recurrent remittance flows, received through formal financial intermediaries, also provide a record that can be used to assess creditworthiness of remittance receivers. This is a first step toward financial inclusion. If linked with financial services through savings accounts, loans, insurance and investment opportunities, remittances sustainably promote financial inclusion. These investment options may comprise diaspora funds and bonds and this channeling may be enhanced through financial education and tax and credit incentives.

However, the contribution of migrants to the development of their countries of origin goes far beyond financial remittances, including transfers of skills and knowledge, entrepreneurship, trade, investments, network building, bridging cultural divides and breaking down gender stereotypes. The term “social remittances” was introduced over fifteen years ago to highlight that in addition to money, ideas and practices circulate between sending and receiving communities. Those social remittances may transform or challenge the values and practices in origin countries. While less easily quantifiable than financial remittances, social remittances can provide a positive development impact, as migrants’ linguistic and cultural links to their country of origin empower them to provide distinct contributions and to be agents of change.

Diaspora is “bridge-builders” amongst countries, due to their transnational nature. They reside outside of their countries of birth, yet they often maintain strong links to their countries of origin. They are more than just remittance senders; they can be the catalysts for philanthropy, investments and innovation in their countries of origin. Moving from one country and establishing a life elsewhere is a process that implies transforming the relationship that exists with the society of origin, and also establishing a life within the society of residence. The social networks, feelings, families and sometimes cultures and citizenship of diaspora are shared between distinct societies.

Migration provides benefits to countries of destination, particularly through the contribution of labor migrants at all skills levels. This is true in both developed and developing countries. While countries often vie for the most highly skilled migrants, economic research indicates that the economic contributions of low and medium skilled workers are comparable to those of high-skilled workers. Migrants in regular situations, tend to fill labor market gaps and thus to be complementary to the local labor force, allowing the economy to grow more rapidly, which in turn creates more jobs, demanding more services, providing more taxes and leading to higher incomes and wages, thereby boosting GDP. While migrant workers send home, on average, about 15 per cent of their earnings as remittances, the remaining 85 per cent remain in countries of destination. Migrants also create businesses and bring high rates of innovation to their new countries. For example, in OECD countries, entrepreneurship is slightly higher among migrants than among native-born, albeit with marked variations by country of origin and destination, and over time. Comparable data for non-OECD countries would help in understanding the patterns and impacts of migrant

entrepreneurship there. These positive impacts are maximized when women's labor is fully utilized, and their human rights are respected.

The portability of migrant workers' social security entitlements is an important factor affecting their decision to remain in the country of destination or return to their countries of origin. It also has an effect on taking up employment in the formal economy and thus contributing to social security schemes or remaining in the informal economy to avoid losing paid contributions when moving to another country. Like other workers, migrant workers should be able to access such benefits after paying into the system, even if they go to another country or return to their home countries. Countries of origin and destination should develop bilateral and multilateral coordination mechanisms ensuring the portability of social security rights.

Address obstacles for diaspora involvement in their countries of origin including their legal status in host country, their ability to enjoy their human rights, access to dual citizenship, visa costs and procedures, access to public services, consular support, hurdles to investment and conducting business and banking services in both host and home countries. When Diasporas get this kind of advantages over local people this might trigger or initiate people for migration decision

Establish inter-ministerial coordination mechanisms that involve all relevant national ministries and subnational authorities to identify and ensure alignment of migration related policy priorities, and where possible facilitate participation of other relevant stakeholders such as members of diaspora and civil society. In line with SDG commitments and recognizing the cross-cutting impact of migration across policy sectors, identify policy priorities, and develop specific implementation plans related to development and the governance of migration in the priority sectors relevant to the national context. Promote cooperation platforms for city and regional administrations that recognize their abilities to develop innovative policies that empower them, through devolved powers and increased resources, to strengthen social cohesion, provide services to migrant communities, and to maximize the economic benefits brought by these communities and diaspora communities abroad.

4.7. Contribution of the external migration on socio-economic of the city

According to Migrants were identified from the household survey as family members who have left the household to work elsewhere for at least three months prior to the survey period. The occurrence of a large number of migrants in the study areas which tally to 16.8% of the national migration stock enables us to find a tolerable number of migrants in the sample households. Of the total sample households, 35.47% (282 observations) had sent at least one family member for migration, 15.47% (123 observations) have participated in temporary migration and 18.87% (150 observations) had sent at least one family member for permanent migration. Only 1.11% (nine households) had both temporary and permanent migrants. Of these migrant-sending households, 86.2% (273 observations) had received remittances.

Having a migrant member abroad and receiving remittance is one of the major indicators of wealth or social status in Addis Ababa area. In other words, “haves and have not” are often defined in terms of accessing and not accessing remittance. However, Addis Ababa is a mature migrant community; the socio-economic divide has become more visible over the past decade. While the majority of respondent’s family struggle to survive in the face of growing living costs, remittance receiving individuals tend to have improved living standard. The remarkable change of remittance usage, from consumption and social expenditure to investment has widened the gap. For example, a person who receives from his families abroad is considered to be rich and classy. With that money which he receives as remittance he has opened a small supermarket near his neighborhood. This supermarket has now become a very good marketplace for neighbors. This means that migration and remittance have created a new-spatial divide in the community.

The social layer between migrant and non-migrant families is also increasingly reflected in public space and social events. Remittance allows migrants to buy commodities that seem to be unaffordable for the general public. They tend to be distinct in appearance. The role of in-kind remittance is significant in this regard, as high-quality items sent from abroad are either expensive or unavailable in the local markets. Another important distinction is that remittance receiving families send their children to private school rather than public school. The way social events like public holidays, weddings and funerals are celebrated clearly whether they are remittance receivers or not. Demonstrating one’s wealth and social status through social expenditure is not a new

phenomenon. However, these events are increasingly commercialized over these recent years and tend to magnify the division. Migration and remittance have not only alerted local tradition and standards, but also considerably change the way social events are perceived and practiced. Remittance receipt tends to become an important criterion to choose a potential marriage partner. Many parents in Addis Ababa prefer their daughters or sons to marry a diaspora member because they know that this could create migration opportunities or provide access to remittance.

4.8. New Findings of the study

The new finding of this study indicates the ever-increasing number of graduates from the nation's institutes of higher learning has always been taken as one of the growth indicators for the development of this country. However, the country lacks enough industries and employment generating schemes to accommodate thousands of enthusiastic graduates who wish to get jobs as soon as they graduate. Some think that unemployment or even underemployment is an urban phenomenon in Ethiopia. Given the current circumstances in the country and the spill over from sporadic unrests across Ethiopia, this notion has never been true at any stage of the labour history of this country. Public and private universities were also expected to conduct a wide range of researches in line with development needs of the country and act at centers of excellence for the promotion of knowledge and skills the country needs. These universities are also expected to be centers for new technological innovations and quality education that can accelerate the pace of development of the Ethiopian economy.

The industry owners, particularly those in the manufacturing sector seek quick returns from the export of their products but remain suspicious of the ability of the fresh graduates to master their duties. Some, for instance the industrial parks are willing to train them for possible future employment, but it seems that this is not well coordinated properly. Federal and regional governments are already preparing grand programs in supporting newly graduated students to engage in irrigation projects by organizing themselves in into business associations. Depending upon the interests of the skilled youth but not all of the graduates are interested to get down into the rural settings of the country. Besides budgets set by the government to help tackle youth unemployment are far from being utilized properly. The government has repeatedly offered skill trainings for the youth particularly in the TEVT programs both at the federal and regional levels

with the view of providing necessary skilled manpower for the industrial parks but again the industrial parks are yet to absorb the growing number of graduates from such colleges.

In line with this another migration Migration is a part of man's experience as such there is a possibility for it to be shared to friends and relatives. Naturally, people have the tendency to communicate with each other. network between migrants and migrants in the host and origin countries will increase the possibility of international migration. In well-established migrant communities of social networks have been found to immense, that they convey information, reduce the cost and the risk associated with migration, facilitate integration or adjustment to the life at the new destination. As migration network indicates that family members, friends and diaspora who are living abroad highly influence skilled youth migration decision. Friends provide a healthy alternative to family and acquaintances. Friends give support, direction, guidance, and changing the pace outside of the common routines. Also, to confirm that like that of family members who constitute the main source of support for potential young migrants, social networks of friends, peers and diaspora community have a significant impact on young people's migration decisions as well.

Diasporas play an increasingly significant part in the development of nation-building in poor countries and in ones which have undergone major transformation. Ethiopians in the Diaspora can be extremely vital to this country provided that they are committed to use their knowledge, skill and expertise in helping their country of origin. For that to happen, it is imperative that a collaborative effort is made between the government and Ethiopians in the Diaspora in order to create a conducive and enabling environment for their participation in this country. Although Ethiopian Diasporas have done some contribution on the developmental endeavor of their country of origin. The fact is that their participation and contribution in that regard is by and large minimal as compared to their number and potential.

The foremost means of diasporic nation-building comes through individual remittances, followed by hometown associations and charitable initiatives that directly affect economic development, poverty reduction, and capacity building. Governments of migrant-sending and receiving countries, international agencies, and academics are now paying considerable attention to the relationship between diasporas and development. Another, related field gaining notice concerns the potential diasporas have for reducing brain drain in developing countries. Ethiopian Diaspora

mission and commitment to contribute for Ethiopia development, however, would not be realized unless the Government of Ethiopia cooperates by open arms and by embracing the Diaspora initiative. On the onset, it should be acknowledged that only a two-way traffic for the genuine transformation of Ethiopia could be palpable and palatable to enthusiastic Ethiopians. In brief, Diaspora Ethiopians and the Government of Ethiopia must meet halfway on the two-way traffic and both must agree to iron out differences and reconcile for the sake of national development.

There needs to be clear policy strategy and an enabling environment to ensure the ease by which Diaspora professionals could engage in dialogue with partners in the country. National needs and priorities need to be clearly articulated and communicated. The partnership and engagement need to be established in the context of trust and mutual respect. Policies, operating rules, regulations and guidelines need to facilitate the partnership. Clear monitoring mechanisms need to be identified to assess progress and significantly to contribute to mainstream development.

Above all, Diaspora Ethiopians must understand that they could make a huge difference in their country. Not by atavistic throwback but by transcending politics and embracing Ethiopia's development agenda as their primary goal and activity. It should also be understood that there could be a less inviting, less motivating, and even an atmosphere less conducive is Ethiopian. It endeavours in extending their hands unto Ethiopia, but Ethiopians should not give up easily. On the contrary, they should be dogged and relentless, and if necessary, stubbornly tenacious, with respect to the development of Ethiopia.

4.9. Summary of the Findings

In the past few decades, Ethiopia has become a very important sending country in migration, and the destinations and the ways of migration are indeed very diverse. Owing to various socio-economic and political factors, over a number of decades Ethiopia is one of the major sending countries in migration. The routes and destinations of these migrations are as diverse as that of the causes of it. This is often dictated by the circumstances present at the time of migration. Over the years, a pattern emerged as to where in the country, why and where Ethiopians migrate. It is important to note that, poverty, unemployment and political instability are key variables along which migration from Ethiopia is being stratified, and there is also important sub-national variation. This has grown more visible since the late-1990s with an influx of skilled youth migrants

from Ethiopia migrating to different destinations. Not all Ethiopian migrants have the same experiences, and this has a lot to do with the regional organization of migration.

Over the last years, the issue of youth has received greater attention in Ethiopia and the government has started to implement policies to support young people. The National Youth Policy of Ethiopia marks a major step in recognising and promoting the rights of young people in the country. Established in 2004, the policy aims “to bring about the active participation of youth in the building of a democratic system and good governance as well as in the economic, social and cultural activities and to enable them to fairly benefit from the results. It envisions youth as a young generation with democratic outlook and ideals, equipped with knowledge and professional skills. A wide range of priority areas of action are identified, including democracy and good governance.

The National Youth Policy recognises the need for inter-ministerial cooperation. The development of the National Youth Policy is thus coordinated by the Ministry of Youth and Sports and implemented with the support of diverse stakeholders such as the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Health, as well as NGOs and youth federations. Yet, the government still faces major challenges implementing the National youth Policy, such as weak monitoring and evaluation tools, lack of inter-sectoral cooperation, limited financial resources and absence of a clear strategy at the different territorial levels. Most youth have limited awareness of youth policies and there is little evidence that young Ethiopians are involved in the decision-making processes and the livelihoods of their communities. Efforts should be made to support skilled youth to use their skill and knowledge in their country of origin by providing opportunities. There should be clear cut policy in order to prevent skilled youth from migration externally which lead the country into brain drain. This scenario shows this is the disadvantage of external migration of developing countries.

In the last few decade, there have been noteworthy improvements on the labour market. Wages increased significantly, while the level of unemployment decreased from 18 per cent in 2004 to 14.4 per cent in 2013 (National Labour Force Survey). However, youth still face precarious conditions in the labour market. Almost three-quarters of youth earn below the average monthly wage, while the majority of employed young people work in the informal sector or as unpaid family workers. Nearly one quarter of the employed youth worked in the informal sector in 2013

(NLFS), particularly young people aged 15-19 who have no bargaining power. In addition, the labour force participation of youth is strongly determined by geographical, socio-economic and gender disparities. In urban areas, youth face higher rates of unemployment, strong disadvantages compared to adults, and a school-to-work transition that is more than twice as long as in rural areas. In this context, the vast majority of young Ethiopians suffer from a lack of access to high-quality education, decent formal sector employment, and governmental employment programs. The demand for technical and vocational education and training programs is high, since the skills developed in Ethiopian schools do not match the needs of the national labour market.

On the other hand, the positive impact of international migration is concentrated on the diaspora contribution for the development of the country. even though Ethiopia is making a coordinated effort to attract its Diasporas to participate in the development effort of the country, there are multi-faceted problems. The Diasporas argue hinders their participation. Most of the diaspora community wanted to participate on the growth and transmission plan for the success of the GTP, lack of justice and good governance at the grass roots (Kebele and Woreda) levels they have witnessed in the country so far, will be a major obstacle. Without justice, good governance and competent civil servants at Kebele and Woreda level, whatever attractive plans the government designs, it does not work. The Ethiopian government had encouraged the Diasporas to engage in economic development by allowing easy movement of capital, goods and persons into the country and offering the expatriates economic incentives to return or invest in the country. However, most of these special privileges were suspended. The suspension of these special privileges created disappointment among the Diasporas. The existence or absence of institutions to address an issue shows the emphasis given to it. Institutional management with efficient and effective professionals is a crucial for successful achievement of goals. Any plan or objective to work with Diaspora definitely needs a body to take care of it.

Ethiopia, however, does not have a specific ministry that is responsible for Diaspora engagement. In which it is charged with multiple objectives but has several departments in different ministries working on different aspects of Diaspora engagement. At the national level, the Ethiopian government has three different bodies dealing with Diaspora. The General Directorate for Ethiopian Expatriates (Ministry of Foreign Affairs), The Ethiopian Diaspora Coordinating Office

(Ministry of Capacity Building) and the Diaspora Desk in the Addis Ababa City Government Investment Authority. At regional level, there are branches of Diaspora coordinating offices that also engaged directly with the Diaspora abroad.

Finally, the Ethiopian Investment Agency and the Development Bank of Ethiopia are financial institutions under the Ethiopian National Bank that are involved in Diaspora engagement. This institution, however, lacks competent manpower for rendering effective delivery of services for their customers. One can easily observe bureaucratic difficulties and the prevalence of corruption as another challenge in these institutions. There is a lack of accountability in the workplace and overall work ethic is low especially in government offices and banks. We need to look at the work culture and attitude. Technology should be another area of focus. Access to information and digital information in government institutions will enable more efficient processes. Capacity Building locally and providing the right support for businesses to thrive is key.

According to the proclamation, some individuals who even acquired other country's citizenship, his /her origin being Ethiopia, has a right to gain special Identification Card, which gives special privileges for foreign nationals of Ethiopian origin. The holder of the Identification Card is entitled to privileges and rights like entering the country without entry visa, to live without residence permit, the right to work in Ethiopia without a work permit and be considered as domestic investor and invest in areas allowed to Ethiopian investors without discrimination (Federal Negarit Gazeta, No. 270/2002:5). The service charge for the Identification card is 500 USD and 200 USD to renew on the bases of two years' interval. This is criticized as expensive and not considering the long-term gains from the Diaspora. The outflow of educated and skilled individuals from developing to developed countries has remained a complex development challenge and is increasingly becoming a critical issue in the knowledge-based globalized world. The migration of skilled individuals from developing countries is often attributed to the complex and shifting interplay. It is also essential in ensuring national competitiveness in the world market. As a result, for most developing countries, maintaining the appropriate human resource base in science, technology, engineering and innovations is a major policy challenge. These countries continue to suffer from extreme shortage of skilled human resources, often attributed to brain drain, which is emerging as a crucial factor that may constrain the development of knowledge-based competitive society for developing countries.

CHAPTER FIVE

5.1. Conclusion

International migration of skilled youth is and has been characterized by complex flows arising from a combination of root causes. These root causes have included poverty, unemployment and political instability. Migration flows from Ethiopia have been largely characterized by refugee flows and increasingly by skilled youth migration. Refugee flows are still occurring today as people continue to flee due to political repression. Recently the large flows of political displacement in 1990s has decreased over the years and migration has taken the turn into economic flow. Skilled migration from Ethiopia has been increasing since the 1990s, especially within the health profession, as there is an international demand for health care workers. The government of Ethiopia has sought to encourage the return of skilled migrants by offering tax breaks and other incentives to entice return. It appears, however, due to the poor living conditions in Ethiopia, skilled workers are not attracted to return. It is evident that extreme poverty and poor governance have been and continued to be key driving forces for Ethiopian migration. It can be anticipated that migration flows out of Ethiopia will continue due to this reason.

Addis Ababa decisions to migrate was influenced by different factors including; poverty unemployment and political instability, push and pull factors, family and friend's roles, and cues and pressures about migration from the community. The desire of the participants to lead a better life is equally important as that of the above factors. It is the economic situation that makes them decide to flee from the country. In this study the researcher found out that how most Addis Ababa skilled youth are living under poverty. Approximately two-thirds of skilled youth receive financial support from their parents after graduation due to lack of unemployment and low-income wages. It also indicates that how life is very difficult for most of the participants, every day it's hard to face all of challenges in which life throws at them through inflation, economic condition and unemployment. From the overall discussion with respondents, the researcher realized that different stressors contribute to external migration.

The main push factors identified in this study are poverty, living standard unemployment, low salary and not being hired under their profession and not giving close enough credit for the educated and skilled people. The main pull factors are also related to family members, information

from family members and friends who live abroad, employment, civilization and in which people think that America is a land to make their dreams come true. This finding has a clear implication that migration decision is influenced also by family members and friends. Findings illustrate that the outflow of educated and skilled individuals from developing to developed countries has remained a complex development challenge and is increasingly becoming a critical issue in the knowledge-based globalized world

It is also essential in ensuring national competitiveness in the world market. As a result, for most developing countries, maintaining the appropriate human resource base in science, technology, engineering and innovations is a major policy challenge. These countries continue to suffer from extreme shortage of skilled human resources, often attributed to brain drain, which is emerging as a crucial factor that may constrain the development of knowledge-based competitive society for developing countries. Ethiopian government should account for education migrants, a period of extended human-capital investment, when considering skilled youth migration. Skilled youth migration received limited government attention, and education migration should be conceptualized as one way that families continue to invest in their children's future productivity. Future research should continue to examine the drivers and consequences of youth migration.

This study also demonstrates that the money that migrants have sent home has significantly improved. Diasporas can influence political processes and events in some significant ways. They also have a potential to influence economies and the process of wealth creation in home and host countries to much greater degree. In particular, Ethiopian Diasporas since they have lived for a long period of time in developed countries grasping modern education of science and technology; they are a powerful catalyst for innovation, economic growth and poverty reduction. They are the major sources of Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) and market development including outsourcing of production, technology transfer, philanthropy, tourism, political contributions and more intangible flows of knowledge, new attitudes and cultural influence. The welfare of their families, their asset portfolios, access to education and setting up business have also upgraded. Migration and remittance have had significant positive impacts. However, the more the remittance are invested, the greater the positive effect will be

The Ethiopian Diaspora, including its second and third generation, is among the country's critical intellectual resource whose maximum mobilization and engagement is indispensable. However,

the majority of Ethiopian Diaspora including its second and third generation, is among the country's critical intellectual resource whose maximum mobilization and engagement is indispensable. However, the majority of Ethiopian Diaspora is not engaging in the development efforts of the country as expected like Chinese and Indian diaspora. Due to multifaceted problems of corruptions, bureaucratic bottlenecks, lack of good governance, and absence of participatory and inclusive political culture in the country's politics. Therefore, Ethiopian Diaspora has not been effectively mobilized, networked and engaged in the country's development endeavors as expected. Accordingly, it is suggested that government should design policy and strategy to further channel migration fund into investment and ad hoc knowledge. It is important to address the issue of collective remittance investment and diaspora knowledge and skills so that they contribute for the development of the country.

5.2. Recommendation

Migration in Ethiopia is and has historically been characterized by complex flows arising from a combination of root causes. These root causes have included poverty, unemployment, political repression, forced repatriation, and forced resettlement. Government should pay more attention on the people of Ethiopia by revising its policy. Ethiopian government should focus on paying attention about poverty, unemployment and political instability. Poverty is one of the main reasons for out migration of the people. Government should work on reduction of poverty and it should amend its strategies on poverty reduction. The other major problem is political instability within the country. Political inequality and ethnicity are widespread in Ethiopia. One ethnic group is more favored than the other ethnic's one. This kind of political situation should be criticized and should be written in the constitution of Ethiopia that every ethnic group is equal. Most youth in urban Ethiopia work in the informal sectors where 50% of urban employment in recent years is coming from and where the majority of youth females are working (IOM).

Though the informal sector employment can serve as a means of survival for many urban youths, the level of productivity, quality of work and generally decent work opportunities are low. In Ethiopia informal sectors and self-employment are the largest employers of youth despite they have received minimal policy attentions. Therefore, youth has experienced not only the challenge of unemployment, but also problem of obtaining protected career. Ethiopian policy should give

priority for its citizens as the ones in the developed country. It should consider why Ethiopian people are migrating and what should be done about and give the scenario a serious consideration.

Unemployment rates for people with a college diploma and university degree have been rising. This is because first the pace at which labor supply is growing surpasses the pace of employment creations that demands skilled labor. Second the irrelevance of certain trainings to the labor market demand has witnessed the poor linkage between training institutions and the labor market. To this end young people also face difficulties to find jobs due to lack of work experiences, because the apprenticeship program in which those in the school supposed to get exposure of the real work was not found to be effective and therefore the education system unlikely responsive to the labor market.

In addition, commonly perceived job searching mechanisms such as visiting vacancy advertising noticeboard and following public media (Radio, TV and News Papers), the importance of family, friends and relative networks is well appreciated mostly for accessing employments in the informal and private sectors. Therefore, in the current limited employment opportunities and tough competition to go through, the importance of social network, relatives and friends is prevailing. However, it is clear that the prevalence of family assistance in youth job search can have two implications. First as Jeffrey (2008:744) describes it largely benefits young people from family with a better social position that are culturally and socially connected. Contrary the system inevitably affects young people from deprived family backgrounds as they are in unfavorable economic and social position and hence in poor social networking. Second the prevalence of employment through family assistance can be an indication for the absence of the effective employment system that could provide fair employment services to all job seekers. This implies that youth development policy should give more emphasis on improving and enhancing the responsiveness of education institution to the labor market demands by strengthening the linkage between education institutions and the labor market.

It is clear that the Ethiopian diaspora has strong connections with its homeland and is keen to engage in business ventures and to contribute to the development of the home country. However, in order to tap into the resources of the diaspora, creating and fostering an environment that is conducive to investment in general is critical. Among the significant problems facing diaspora investors are access to land, access to finance, and contract enforcement. These problems are

compounded by the paucity of reliable information on how to establish businesses in the country and exacerbated by frequent changes in government policies and sectorial priorities. The development of legal and institutional frameworks for the enforcement of contract laws, property rights, standards and regulations and procedures for smooth business operations will make investing in Ethiopia more attractive. Providing reliable and timely information to investors is an additional factor to make the country attractive for business ventures. In fact, there may be no need to provide special incentives to encourage diaspora investments.

Environments that foster all investments can be equally effective in spurring economic growth and development. However, the government needs also to consider the long-term sustainability of policies (such as those related to access to land and capital) before they are implemented. It should also address issues of diversification both in terms of sectors and regions by fostering better use of the country's natural resource clusters and encouraging investment outside Addis Ababa. This would also encourage more broad-based development. Recognizing that most Diasporas will not return permanently, it would also be judicious for the government to put in place policies that facilitate and promote the circulation of diaspora investors and entrepreneurs and of knowledge and skills through input from expatriate professionals and experts. Finally, although economic progress is being made in Ethiopia, our case study of diaspora investment indicate that growth does not guarantee that benefits emanating from it will be equitably distributed spatially, sectorial or to the most disadvantaged members of Ethiopian society.

5.2.1. Motivations and challenges

when it comes to motivation and challenges of diaspora the experiences of diaspora investors interviewed by the authors suggest that although their understanding of and familiarity with intrinsic factors such as the home country's business cultures assists diaspora investors, extrinsic factors such as the business environment and government policies play a critical role in determining the success or failure of an enterprise. While noting progress made, the World Bank's 2008 report on Ethiopia's investment climate revealed major policy and administrative impediments to business growth and competitiveness. Several of the entrepreneurs they interviewed also identified obstacles to establishing and operating businesses in Ethiopia that

negatively impacted the viability and productivity of their firms. Conversely, the diaspora community too can pose challenges as well as opportunities for homeland development.

5.2.2. Bureaucratic red tape

Among the challenges recognized by diaspora entrepreneurs were a tangle of rules and regulations, an inordinate amount of paperwork, and associated delays. In the words of a diaspora entrepreneur from our sample, who had returned to Ethiopia after studying and working in the United States for several years, “one of the challenges I see is the lack of a sense of urgency among the regulatory and service delivery agencies. I think people fail to understand the value of time. When you are in line to get various licenses and permits, the people working in these offices seem to think that getting those permits or licenses are the only tasks you have to accomplish. You see a lot of duplication of efforts and unnecessary controls. More than ten people here handle what one person could accomplish in the United States. Such processes can be very frustrating’.

5.2.3. Local business cultures

The entrepreneurs interviewed underscored the time intensive nature of conducting business in Ethiopia and the need to factor in additional time, particularly if engaged in an export business. According to a returnee who runs a garment manufacturing unit, “whereas in the USA you would expect to be direct in your approach, here in Ethiopia you have to be careful in your approach. When you ask your suppliers, for instance, if they can deliver a service or product, they would easily say yes but when you ask them for a specific delivery day they would say, ‘I will finish it soon’”. If you manage to make them commit to a specific date, then when that day comes, they would give all kinds of lousy reasons as to why they could not do it. The developed market customers, they require you to give them a delivery time. If you cannot deliver on the specified date, then you are out of business. Of course, being born in Ethiopia has helped me to understand these things relatively quickly and avoid mistakes or adjust to the reality on the ground’’. The importance of being part of a strong and well-connected local network that included government officials, various service providers and other firms was also recognized by diaspora entrepreneurs.

5.2.4. Access to finance

Lack of ease of access to capital and the necessity of relying on finances garnered through familial and personal networks was another difficulty observed by our interviewees according to IOM. A

diaspora entrepreneur who wished to establish a manufacturing unit in Ethiopia discovered that in order to borrow money from the Development Bank of Ethiopia (the only government agency that finances long-term investments); he had to have 30% equity in cash. This necessitated yet another loan from a private commercial bank whose terms and conditions put the entrepreneur and his partner at a competitive disadvantage. Access to finance is also constrained by the limited types of assets that banks are willing to take as collateral.

5.2.5. Contract enforcement/management

A World Bank study (2008a) found that contract non-compliance was a major hurdle in conducting business in Ethiopia. About 45% of firms in Ethiopia (especially smaller ones) entered into oral contracts, and in the absence of effective contract enforcement, entrepreneurs had to invest significant time in building and maintaining relationships in order to conduct business. A case in point from among our interviewees is a diaspora entrepreneur, who returned to Ethiopia in 1998. He subleased about 40 acres of land owned by 40 farmers in Meki (south of Addis Ababa), for a commercial farm. Managing the 40 farmers was a major problem as individual farmers kept raising rents arbitrarily and it was difficult to obtain contract enforcement support from the concerned government agencies. After 3 years, this businessman gave up on his farm and turned to other business opportunities. He noted that fellow entrepreneurs in the area had faced similar problems

5.2.6. Access to land

Despite the government's stated desire to make land available to investors in general and diaspora investors, access to land has remained to be one of major bottlenecks to diaspora investment performance. Many of those interviewed expressed their frustration about the lack of clarity in the regulations with regard to leasing land and the time taken to acquire land to start their projects even when approved. Some investors had to change their project ideas and others had to abandon their plans altogether. Diaspora investors we spoke with noted that it was difficult to get access to land for commercial farms in areas with irrigation and cheap labor and that leasing land from farmers and enforcing the lease was problematic. Although access to land particularly when the government was offering land at very low rates was supposed to be easy, investors often complained about the difficulty of obtaining land particularly in and around Addis Ababa. This

problem has been exacerbated with the discontinuation of the government's policy of providing land to investor's at or below fair market price.

5.2.7. Policy predictability and political sensitivity

The political environment in the home country can play a big role especially if the diaspora has strong political allegiances to certain groups or parties. U.S. based Ethiopians are not only the largest Ethiopian diaspora group, they also are the ones who invest the most in the home country, and also tend to be the most politically active and influential. This means that political developments at home and shifts in who is in power can easily influence diaspora investment flow to Ethiopia, making diaspora investment more volatile and hence less reliable than overall foreign direct investment. Human Rights Watch (2010) has reported that access to funds and opportunities in Ethiopia are subject to partisan politicization. The knotty relationship between the Ethiopian government and the diaspora also raises the question of how the government can attract diaspora investment knowing that this engagement could pose a challenge to its political system.

The number and potential of the Ethiopian Diasporas are incredible. This potential is become useful to those countries where they reside. It is also valuable for the country to come back home. Considering their number and potential, the Ethiopian Diasporas can do much more. One can even say that they have ethical and moral responsibility to contribute to the socio-economic development of their country despite differences of political opinion. Many countries Diasporas have done much better than the Ethiopian Diasporas. Important lessons from, Nigerian, Ghanaian, Indians, Israel and Chinese Diaspora are important in this regard. Although, it may not be bad to be politicized if it is for a common cause, it is also much fruitful to think beyond politics and involved in development endeavors of the country.

The need for consensus building is the other necessary issues that the government and opposition leaders should feel responsible to address their political motives. Otherwise, opposition of destructive nature could hinder the development of the country. These create a sense of doubt on political system for the Diasporas living abroad. They may not be motivated to invest their knowledge, capital and skills in hostile political environment. On the parts of the Diasporas, there is a need to consider the general condition of the country and shape their expectations accordingly.

Committed individuals can win in helping their country in any condition, not only on the steps taken by the government.

In the realm of political participation and membership, there are many ways to facilitate positive and productive diaspora engagement by incumbent government: In the first place, the questions of citizenship and the possibility of holding dual or more than one citizenship should be considered. In order to enhance the political participations of the Diaspora, the country may consider strengthening political ties to migrant populations, for instance, through out-of-country voting. This may perhaps strengthen their sense of belongingness to their country of Origin, Ethiopia.

Lastly, the government should also formulate a clear cut Diaspora policy and strategy which is comprehensive enough to accommodate all the Diasporas in order to enhance their participation in the development efforts of the country rather than temporarily flying to Europe and America for begging their dollar and knowledge on ad hoc basis. More than any other, this needs a commitment of the government on power, which is for the genuine return and involvement of the Diaspora in their country's development.

5.4. Areas for future studies

Out of the finding the researcher identified the following points to be addressed by future researchers. 1) Why is migration considered as the only alternative among the youth? 2) Why do people consider Diaspora's life as success in our community?

In order to address this question and understand their attitude further I suggest large scale survey to be conducted at the community level. 2) This research found that all interviewed respondents have intention of external migration. Even though they are going to start their life from clean slate they don't consider it as a big problem. Here future researchers need to examine the reason behind developing this issue.

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Annexes

Annex 1-Letter of Introduction

Addis Ababa University, Graduate School of Development Studies

Study Title: The contribution of Diaspora community on external migration from Ethiopian urban centers: the case of out-migration from Addis Ababa

Introducing the Nature and Purpose of the Research

My name is Sara Adefris who is third year regional and local development studies masters' student in Addis Ababa University. The School of development studies require every student to conduct academic research as the partial fulfilment of master's program. Based on my area of interest, I have chosen to work on the issue of out migration from Addis Ababa and the contribution of the diaspora community.

The number of skilled and youth migrant from Addis Ababa to America is rising from time to time through diversified visa lottery or due to the new migrant regulation of Canada. The purpose of this research is to explore the factors of skilled and youth out-migration decision from urban city of Addis Ababa and the contribution of diaspora community. In line with this, I would like to explore the stressful situations to push skilled youth to migrate through legal means. I believe exploring contributing factors is a halfway to address the problem of unemployment, poverty and political insatiability from Ethiopia to different parts of the world.

Since this study is going to be conducted on cause of out-migration from Addis Ababa I interviewed few respondents to know the root cause of out-migration from Addis Ababa and according to the case of the diaspora community in which I was unable to reach due to COVID - 19 outbreak in the country, most of them went to their country due to this outbreak, so I used secondary data information from book reviews, journals, articles and from web sites.

Annex 2- Observation Checklist

This observation checklist is prepared with the idea to support the data collected through in-depth interview. It will further help the researcher to understand potential stressful factors which influence skilled youth to out-migrate from Addis Ababa.

This checklist has three main parts and different items under each part.

1. Physical characteristic of the respondents

- How is their living condition? Do they have enough space to live in? what are housing condition like? (quality, rental, family owned, special features)
- Is the home environment inviting for the respondents to live in? Is it hygienic, what about accessing pure water and sanitation?
- Is it challenging to live in Addis Ababa? If so, what are the main challenges to live in the main city?
- Have you filled the DV lottery (DV) form to leave for America or to Canada?

2. Economic characteristics:

- Is there any evidence for the skilled youth for their income generation? Or are the skilled youth employed or unemployed?
- What is the educational background of the skilled youth? (diploma, degree, master PhD) are they engaged in line of work according to their profession of educational background?
- Is there salary worth living in Addis Ababa whenever there is actual fluctuation of economic inflation in the city? Are they satisfied with their salary?
- Does the salary of skilled youth enough to support their family? (father, mother, wife and kids)

3. diaspora community characteristics:

- What is the main contribution of diaspora community for the socio-economic development of the country? What kind of measurement did ministry of foreign affairs take to cooperate with diaspora?
- Why do they want to invest in their country of origin? What are the types of diaspora motivational interest in contributing to development of Addis Ababa? (investment, health care, education, technology, construction and real estate)?
- Where do diaspora want to invest when it comes to region? Do they seem interested to invest in Addis Ababa or another region?
- What is the main Contribution of the diaspora community on migrant's migration decision?
- What is the main Contribution of the diaspora community on migrant's migration decision?
 - What is the obstacle of the diaspora policy for investment? Is it challenging to invest in Addis Ababa? In your opinion do you think the diaspora policy predictable, rigid and political sensitive?

Annex 3- In-Depth Interview Guide for Respondents of Addis Ababa

The in-depth interview guide for respondents of skilled youth of Addis Ababa has four main parts and different items under each part. The main parts of this interview guide are; background information, reason for migration and the overall process, family and friend's role in the skilled and youth migration, skilled youth employment, unemployment status and political instability of Addis Ababa. The decision of diaspora for the contribution of the socio-economic development of the city. The interview guide is open-ended which gives a space for participants to freely express their opinion.

Background Information

1. Sex.....
2. Age.....
3. Marital status.....
4. Educational status
5. Employment states.....

Reason for migration and the overall process

1. what is your main reason to migrate externally? (Probe: economic condition, unemployment, political situation, living standard) Was there any special event that led you to consider out-migration as a way out from Addis Ababa?
2. Are you employed if you are what is your occupational type (secretary, accountant, manager, engineer, doctor, Logistics office or purchaser)? How much is your income per month? are you satisfied with your salary?

3. How much information did you get about the DV Lottery to America? (Probe: your families and friends' knowledge and experience of migration, your knowledge of out migration?). have you filled the DV Lottery form?
4. Where do you want to migrate and why? (Probe: America, Canada or Europe?). what do you expect to find from the destination of the country from which you will reside?
5. Do you take out-migration as alternative life changing strategy? After migration do you think you will be able to reach your ultimate goal.
6. Would you return to your home country once you solve the problems which took you abroad? Are you willing to contribute for the development of your country?

Family and Friends Roles of Skilled Youth Network for Out-Migration Decision

1. How do you describe your family members' contribution in your out- migration decision? (Probe: your family members support both financially and psychologically? How do you describe your relatives ' attitude towards your migration?)
2. How do you describe your friends' contribution in your migration decision? (Probe: tell me your friends' out-migration experience, their attitude towards migrating to America and Canada?).
3. How do you describe the overall situation of both your relatives and friends who live in America and any other parts of Europe countries? (Probe: What roles do they specifically play in your decision of out-migration to America? Tell me how they respond when you decide to out -migrate from Addis Ababa? How do they describe their living and working condition in America, Canada or Europe?).

4. Does your family and friends keep the flow of information from the destination country?

Skilled and youth employment status

1. What is your employment history after graduation? If you can also state work experience and unemployment duration?
2. Can you please state reasons for unemployment? (quality of education problem, poor economy, state failure and youth population pressure)
3. What kind of job search mechanisms and experience did you use to be employed?
4. What type of job you are aspiring for and why?
5. What strategies used to cope with unemployment and for how long?
6. What it means being employed and unemployed for you and how you explain it?
7. If you are employed what is your job type?
8. Are you satisfied with your working environment and your basic salary?
9. If you are employed in an organization what is the reason for you to leave your work and out migrate from Addis Ababa?
10. Overall personal employment experience (listening to respondent's experience)

Impact of Political insecurity in Addis Ababa

1. How do you perceive the political insecurity in Addis Ababa?
2. What do you think is the main reason for political instability in Addis Ababa?
3. Do you think that the government of Ethiopia is trying to improve the homeland security in the country?
4. Which groups of people do you think are more vulnerable for the instability of Addis Ababa?
5. Is there any linkage of out-migration of skilled and youth due to political instability in Addis Ababa?

Annex 4- Interview Guide for Key Informants

1. What do you think are the factors which influence skilled youth“ migration decision?
2. How do you explain out-migration of skilled youth preference from Addis Ababa to America or to Canada?
3. In what ways do Diasporas contribute in migrant’s decision to fleeing Addis Ababa?
4. How do you describe the roles of family members and friends in out-migration of skilled and youth?
5. What do you think about Ethiopian government policy of skilled youth unemployment in Addis Ababa?
6. Does external migration contribute to socio-economy of Addis Ababa if so in what ways?
7. What do you expect to find when you out migrate from Addis Ababa? And what challenges did you expect to encounter when you migrate?
8. Do you think out-migration as an alternative life changing strategy?
9. How do you perceive out migration phenomena as a whole?

Appendix 5- In-depth Interview Guide for the Diaspora Community according to IOM Report

The objective of the interview is to determine the level of interest, areas of interest as well as willingness among the diaspora to participate in the development of Ethiopia. What would encourage the diaspora to participate in projects or invest in Ethiopia. What are the perceived challenges or potential challenges that are seen by the diaspora? What communication channels should be used to promote interest and participation in development projects in Ethiopia.

1. (If diaspora organization leader) Does your organization promote, lead or facilitate development projects or business investment in Ethiopia? If so, what and how? If not, why not? (If an individual) Are you currently or have you participated in or contributed to development projects or business investment in Ethiopia? If so what and why? If not, why not?
2. What type of support (Financial, Materials, Skills Transfer, Other?) would you be interested in contributing and in what sector (Health, Education, Entrepreneurs, Agriculture, Infrastructure, Food, etc.? Why or why not?
3. Thinking about the Ethiopian economy, what do you think Ethiopia needs in terms of investment/ development? Are there specific industries or sectors, geographic areas, etc. that are important to you? Why?
4. To what extent do you think the diaspora will be willing to invest in these areas? Why or Why not? Are there other areas that the diaspora prefers to invest in/contribute to?

5. Do Ethiopians in the diaspora perceive any obstacles or challenges that might prevent or inhibit them from engaging in, contributing to or participating in development projects in Ethiopia? What and why? How likely do you think that any of these issues can be changed?

6. Looking to the future, what do you think is the best way to communicate with the Ethiopian diaspora on further participation in developmental efforts in Ethiopia

7. Who else in the Diaspora should we be speaking to?

Annex B

Sector Interviewees Profile	Frequency	Gender
Members of the diaspora in the Health sector	5	2 Female/3 Male
Members of the diaspora in the Education sector	3	Male
Members of the diaspora who are Heads of Diaspora Organizations	4	2 Female/3 Male
Members of the diaspora in the Arts sector	2	Female
Members of the diaspora in the Religious sector	1	Male
Members of the diaspora who are students and involved in student organizations	3	Female
Members of the diaspora who are business owners	5	1 Female/4 Male
Members of the diaspora in the Legal sector	1	Female
Members of the diaspora who are young professionals	3	Female
Members of the diaspora from the Imperial Family	2	Male

Annex 6 - Questionnaire Guide for the Diaspora Community according to IOM Report

Next, we are interested in your opinions about possible barriers to engagement between Ethiopia and the Ethiopian diaspora living abroad.

Please make sure to scroll down to answer all questions before hitting “NEXT” button at bottom of the page

1. To what extent do you believe any of the following are OBSTACLES to Ethiopian Diaspora Engagement?

	Not an obstacle				Extremely Important Obstacle
Lack of regular communication between Ethiopian government officials and Ethiopian diaspora leadership	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Procedure for registering a business in Ethiopia including wait time	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Inability for non-resident Ethiopians to vote in elections	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Regulation on transferring capital in and out of Ethiopia	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Difficulty transporting funds physically or electronically from Ethiopia to another country outside of Ethiopia	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Difficulty transporting funds physically or electronically within Ethiopia.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Information on the Ethiopia financial sector, including terms and other financial support

Government and donor investment incentives

Extremely Important
Obstacle

Not an obstacle

Difficulty in obtaining building permits in Ethiopia

Breakdowns due to lack of infrastructure in Ethiopia

Protection of intellectual property and other rights

legal

Accounting and auditing framework

Challenges maintaining machinery due to a lack of mechanics or parts

skilled

Challenges in finding the right skilled partners in Ethiopia

Poor quality and reach of Ethiopia's communications infrastructure (e.g., phone lines, internet access, etc.)

Lack of government accountability in Ethiopia

Not knowing what to expect regarding future government policies in general in Ethiopia

Difficulty in getting the attention of government officials in Ethiopia

officials in

Time it takes to import goods (e. g, clearing customs) into Ethiopia

Obstacle	Extremely Important					Not an obstacle				
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Lack of clear information about import/export procedures			<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Personal Safety and security concerns in Ethiopia	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>					
Gender Issues			<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	
Personal Financial Constraints			<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Personal Work Commitments			<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	
Fraud or Corruption in Ethiopia			<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Political Instability			<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	
Taxes on imported products into Ethiopia			<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Other (please specify)

03. What region/s would you choose to invest/contribute in?

First choice of region

Second choice of region

Third choice of region

C. Diaspora Investment Interest

* 2. When thinking about contributing/investing in Ethiopia, how important is the REGION of the contribution/investment e.g., how important is it that this is made in a specific geographic area.

4-Neither

1-Extremely

Unimportant

2

3

Important Nor

Unimportant

5

6

7-Extremely

Important

Agriculture/fisheries/
livestock

Construction/
infrastructure

Leather Shoes and
Leather Products

Energy	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Horticulture	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Education	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Financial Services	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Healthcare	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Information and communication technology	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Manufacturing and assembly	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sanitation/water	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Textiles and Garments Industrial Parks Tourism and Hospitality	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Mining	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Annex 7 – List of Government Agencies Related to Emigration

Agency	Ministry	Websites
Ethiopian Expatriate Affairs	Ministry of Foreign Affairs	www.mfa.gov.et/Ethiopians_Origin_Abroad
diaspora Coordinating Office	Ministry of Interior	http://www.mcb.gov.et/news_show.asp?id=76
Employment Service Promotion Directorate	Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs	http://www.molsa.gov.et/
The Ethiopian Investment Agency (EIA)	Ministry of Trade and Industry	http://www.ethiomarket.com/eic/

Appendix 8 - Youth population and employment Statistics in Addis Ababa)

	Male	Female	Total
Population size in Addis Ababa	1,452,663	1,595,968	3,048,631
Youth population size in Addis Ababa (15-29 age)	511,138	659,189	1,170,327
Economic participation rates in Addis Ababa	70.7	53.3	61.2
Age dependency ratio of young people	32.2	29.2	30.6
Age dependency ratio of old people	6.8	6.8	6.8
Percentage of self-employed population of the total employed	14.9	6.7	10.5
Percentage of wage and salary paid employees of the total employed	63.9	71.2	67.0
Percentage of unpaid family workers of the total employed	1.7	3.4	2.4
Percentage of workers employed in the informal sector of the total employed	14.7	19.8	16.6
Percentage of student to the total nonactive population	77.7%	57.3%	64.3%
Percentage of trained people (as% of total population above 10 years of age)	34.2%	20.0%	26.4%
Employed population /employment to urban population ratio/	667,973 (58.5%)	481,001 (35.3%)	1,148,974 (45.9%)
Unemployed population/ unemployment to urban population ratio/	139,334 (12.2%)	244,982 (18.0%)	384,317 (15.3%)
Employed youth /employment to youth population ratio/	266,078 (52.1%)	247,648 (37.6%)	513,723 (43.9%)
unemployed youth (unemployment to youth population ratio)	79,004 (15.5%)	126,904 (19.25%)	205,913 (17.6%)

Source computed CSA 2012 survey data and Addis Ababa Bureau of Finance and Economic Development

